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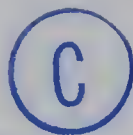
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VALUES AND THE PERCEPTION
OF LEADER BEHAVIOR

by



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A THESIS

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Values and the Perception of Leader Behavior," submitted by Mervin Forrester Thornton in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which the values of the principal and teachers in a school are related to a description of the principal's leader behavior. Five general hypotheses were developed and tested. The Differential Values Inventory, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, and the General Questionnaires gathered data which were used to obtain the values of principals and teachers, to examine the extent of difference in those values, to obtain descriptions of the principal's leader behavior, and to determine the extent of differences in the descriptions of leader behavior in different situations where the values of principals and teachers acted as the criterion variable.

The sample of this study consisted of thirty-seven principals and 376 teachers who worked in one urban elementary school system.

The t-test for significance of difference between means was used to determine whether or not significant differences existed in the variables under investigation. No significant difference was found between the values of groups of principals and teachers. Significant differences were found in all comparisons of groups of principals when their Initiating Structure behavior was described.

Several conclusions were drawn from the findings of this study. The perceptions of principals' Initiating Structure behavior by teachers whose values were similar to the principals' were significantly different from the perceptions by teachers whose values were different

from those of their principals. It was also concluded that it is the kind of values held, as well as the differential values between the teachers and principal that affect perception of Initiating Structure behavior. The finding that there were no significant differences in the perception of Consideration behavior suggests that other factors should be considered.

In the area of Initiating Structure behavior, the values of the principal affect the perceptions of the teachers.

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CHAPTER I

DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM

The recent emphasis in the literature and research has underscored the problem of the place of values in educational administration. An analysis of values and their effect on the administrative process has been a particular focus. Because the administrator functions in a social context he should be concerned with the interpersonal relationships that arise in that social context and with the factors which affect that relationship. Values have been said to be determiners of behavior and influencers of perception. A person's perception is "filtered" through a value structure. Therefore, the administrator's values and the values of the person with whom he deals are important factors in their interpersonal relationship.

The theory that values are changing and that various groups will have differing values which tend to create conflict is proposed by Riesman.¹ Spindler² supports Riesman's theory as he discusses the differences in values between teachers and principals in the school situation. The teacher-principal interpersonal relationships may well be affected by these differences.

¹David Riesman, Nathan Glazer, and Reuel Denney, *The Lonely Crowd* (New Haven and London: The Yale University Press, 1950).

²George D. Spindler, "Education in a Transforming American Culture," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXV (1955), pp. 145-156.

This thesis studied these two areas: that values act as a perceptual filter, and that different groups have different values.

I. THE PROBLEM

Previous research³ has shown that the principal will in general have a teaching staff consisting of individuals with different value patterns. Young teachers are apt to have emergent values, to be more interested in sociability and conformity, to be more relativistic in their thinking, and to focus their attention on the present more than on the future. The emergent and traditional values types *may* require different interpersonal relationships. If the principal is an older individual he may have to be aware of the emergent patterns of values which his young teachers possess, and he may have to deal with these teachers accordingly. If the principal happens to be younger than some of his teachers and tends to be a somewhat emergent-oriented individual then he may have to be aware of older teachers on his staff who are traditionally value-oriented, and this will be manifested in their behavior.

The problems investigated in this study were related to the question of the extent to which the principal must be aware of the values of the teachers with whom he works. Is there any

³Richard Prince, "A Study of the Relationships Between Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness in the School Situation," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1957). (microfilm)

difference in the way that emergent- or traditional-oriented teachers perceive the actions of the principal? If so, then the principal must take steps to accommodate his behavior to the situation in which he finds himself.

Therefore, it was the purpose of this study to determine the relationship of the values of teachers and principals to leader behavior of principals as described by teachers.

Statement of the Problem

To what extent are selected values of the principal and teachers in a school related to a description of the principal's leader behavior?

Sub-Problem One. The first sub-problem of this study was to determine whether teachers and principals may be divided into groups on the basis of their value-orientations with one group being more traditional than the other. Because principals tend to be older and have more experience they are expected to hold to more traditional values. Specifically, do teachers and principals differ as groups in terms of their value-orientations?

Sub-Problem Two. A second sub-problem of the study was to determine the extent of any difference in the descriptions of leader behavior in situations in which principal and teachers hold similar values and situations in which principal and teachers hold differing values. A significant difference would indicate

that the principal must be aware of the similarities and differences in values held by himself and his teachers if he is to be an effective principal. An insignificant difference would indicate that it is not values but other factors which must be considered in the interpersonal relationship. Specifically, sub-problem two asked: To what extent does the described leader behavior of principals in schools where teachers and principals share similar value patterns differ from the described leader behavior in schools where teachers and principal hold differential value patterns?

Sub-Problem Three. A third sub-problem was to assess whether there is any significant difference in the way that traditional-oriented teachers describe traditional-oriented principals and the way that emergent-oriented teachers describe emergent-oriented principals. A significant difference would indicate that it is not only the similarities and differences in values of teachers and principal which determine how teachers perceive the principal as behaving but also the *kind* of values held by the teachers and principal. Is there a significant difference between the described leader behavior of principals in schools where teachers and principal hold traditional values and the described leader behavior of principals in schools where teachers and principal hold emergent values?

Sub-Problem Four. A fourth sub-problem was to determine whether there is any significant difference in the leader behavior

perceived by emergent-oriented teachers and the leader behavior perceived by traditional-oriented teachers when the values of the principal are ignored. Is it only the values of the teachers which affect their perception of leader behavior or do the values of the person being described have some influence on the observer's perceptions? Particularly,

a) Is there a significant difference between the way that traditional-oriented teachers describe traditional-oriented principals and the way that traditional-oriented teachers describe emergent-oriented principals?

b) Is there a significant difference between the way that emergent-oriented teachers describe emergent-oriented principals and the way that emergent-oriented teachers describe traditional-oriented principals?

Sub-Problem Five. A fifth sub-problem was to determine whether individual value characteristics of teachers as delineated by the dimensions of the Differential Values Inventory (DVI) affect their descriptions of the principal's leader behavior. Specifically, are there significant differences between the leader behavior described by teachers who have high scores on certain dimensions of the Differential Values Inventory and those who have low scores on the same dimensions?

Significance of the Study

Knowledge of his own values and the values of those with whom he works is crucial to the administrator. How these values affect behavior and how values of observers affect their description of others' behavior are particular areas of importance. Griffiths says that persons are moved to behave in a certain way by force of the values that are held in common. A person behaves in such a way because it is the "good" way. Our society has attached high values to this type of conduct.⁴

Counts demonstrates through a series of case studies how decision in school administration is influenced by the values and moral and ethical considerations that are adhered to in America.⁵

Pierce and Merrill in summarizing studies on leader behavior state:

Another strong thread in these studies is the emphasis on the overt expression of behavior through descriptions of the behavior involved in the actual performance of important administrative tasks. This demonstrates a concern for consistency in what an individual says he believes and what he does. Stated another way, administrator behavior is conceived to be the expression of what the individual believes to be important concerning administration through the kinds of things he does and the way he does them. In this sense, behavior cannot be separated from its value orientation.⁶

⁴Daniel E. Griftiths, *Human Relations in School Administration* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956), p. 101.

⁵George Counts, *Decision-Making and American Values in School Administration* (New York: Teachers' College Bureau of Publications, 1954).

⁶T. M. Pierce and E. C. Merrill, "The Individual and Administrative Behavior," in R. F. Campbell and R. T. Gregg (eds.), *Administrative Behavior in Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers Publications, 1957), p. 350.

There is definite need to further the knowledge of values in relation to the perception of others' behavior in order that a more adequate perspective may be available to the administrator as he attempts to articulate, or rearticulate, for himself a value system which will be an effective guide and influencer of his actions as an administrator.

Self-knowledge of the administrator is a necessary characteristic. Is he able to analyse his own capacities and behavior well enough to be able to size up the situation he faces, including his own reactions to it? This information is necessary, not only for accurate planning, but for effective action on the part of the administrator. A knowledge of the relationship between his behavior as others see it and his values will help the administrator in analysing his situation.

II. ASSUMPTIONS

One of the major assumptions underlying this study was that values are measurable and quantifiable. Is what a person says about his values at least as valid as drawing inferences from his actions under research conditions? Kluckhohn states that:

Sometimes what a person says about his values is truer from a long-term viewpoint than inferences drawn from his action under special conditions. The fact that an individual will lie under stress of unusual circumstances does not prove that truth is not a value which orients, as he claims, his ordinary behavior. As a

matter of fact, people often lie by their acts and tell the truth with words. The whole conventional dichotomy is misleading because speech is a form of behavior.⁷

It was also assumed that the teachers and principals who participated in this study had the necessary knowledge to complete the instruments.

III. LIMITATIONS

It was recognized that the instruments used in this study do not measure all aspects of a person's values or of a principal's leader behavior. In spite of these limitations, it was expected that a knowledge of the values of the aggregates of principals and teachers along the traditional-emergent continuum would provide a clearer understanding of one of the major groups with which the administrator is involved.

Another limitation was also evident. The impossibility of eliminating all extraneous variables is a problem which faces the researcher in any social situation. Although values are considered a major determiner of behavior and perception, such factors as the situation, available means, and motivation also affect how one behaves. The situation was controlled to a certain extent in that the school is a specific situation; however, the motivation to action and the available means for carrying out that action remained as uncontrolled variables.

⁷Clyde Kluckhohn, "Values and Value-Orientations in the Theory of Action," in T. Parsons and E. Shils (eds.), *Toward a General Theory of Action* (Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. 406.

A final limitation exists in the extent to which this study can be generalized. The research was confined to elementary schools in an urban system in Saskatchewan. Although this sample was generally representative of the populations in similar settings, it does not justify making generalizations to other types of school organizations or to other geographical locations.

This study was concerned with values as they affect the perception of behavior. The principal's leader behavior which was studied was described only by teachers who were teaching in Public elementary schools in Regina, Saskatchewan.

The data for this study was collected by means of questionnaires.

IV. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Values

Kluckhohn's definition of values was used. "A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action"⁸ For the purposes of this study, the nature of a person's values referred to his raw score on the Differential Values Inventory.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 395.

Traditional Teachers (Principals)

Traditional teachers (principals) were those teachers (principals) whose raw scores were above the median on the Differential Values Inventory.

Emergent Teachers (Principals)

Emergent teachers (principals) were those teachers (principals) whose raw scores were below the median on the Differential Values Inventory.

Congruent Values

Congruent values indicate similarity between the principal's values and the teachers' values.

Differential Values

When individuals in any one school hold to different values, differential values exist. The main emphasis of this study was upon the difference between the values of the principals and those of his staff.

Values Dimensions

The values dimensions are the eight dimensions on the Differential Values Inventory as defined on page 28 *infra* which describe the values of the teachers and principals.

Perception

Perception is that part of the process of living by which each

person, from his own unique personal behavioral centre, creates for himself the world in which he has his life's experiences and through which he strives to gain his satisfaction.⁹

Leader Behavior

Behavior of the principal as described on the two dimensions of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) by teachers is leader behavior.

Consideration

Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of the group.¹⁰ It is one dimension of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

Initiating Structure

Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the

⁹W. H. Ittleson and H. Cantril, *Perception: A Transactional Approach* (New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1954), p. 5.

¹⁰Andrew W. Halpin, "Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire," College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, 1957, p. 2.

job done.¹¹ It is the other dimension of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

¹¹*Ibid.*

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED STUDIES

It is the purpose of this chapter to present the theoretical framework upon which this study is based. In so doing, the nature of values and some hypothesized changes in values are discussed. Perception is considered in the social situation. An examination of related studies in the areas of values and perception leads to a statement of the general hypotheses which conclude the chapter.

I. VALUES

Nature of Values

The term Values is exceedingly elusive, covering a wide range of phenomena from ideologies to habitual responses of various types of individuals or social groups. To be useful in research, the term must be clarified.

Barton¹ makes a number of fine distinctions when he considers values as attributes of people or attributes of objects; values as attributes of individuals or of collectives; values as conscious and verbalized standards of the individual, or as inferential constructs made by the research from observed behavior; values as desires or

¹Allen Barton, "Measuring the Values of Individuals," *Religious Education - Research Supplement*, LVII (July, 1962), pp. S62-S67.

obligations; and values as a few basic, general standards or tendencies of choice, or as all specific preferences or standards. These distinctions indicate several types of value concepts, and under each of these types, Barton includes several definitions. The definition of values considered most appropriate for this study would fall under Barton's third type and is proposed by C. Kluckhohn:

A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection of available modes, means and ends of action.²

Kluckhohn elaborates on this definition and states that "the desirable is what it is felt or thought proper to want."³ Stated another way, values may be considered as influential normative standards of human action.

The above definition allows for the operation within an individual of standards which may influence him toward action which does not conform with that prescribed by the social norms of groups with which he is associated, although most choices will likely conform to social norms. Consequently, values may foster individual choices which are set apart from the main streams of conforming social behavior governed by prevailing social norms.

²Clyde Kluckhohn, "Value and Value Orientations in the Theory of Action," in T. Parsons and E. Shils (eds.), *Toward a General Theory of Action* (Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. 395.

³*Ibid.*, p. 396.

Nevertheless, values are closely related to social interaction because their creation depends upon social learning. It is man's social interaction which creates, develops and directs his value system. Getzels and Guba⁴ present a model of the social system which shows man's interaction with the social system and, through a later elaboration by Getzels, indicates the part that values play in it.

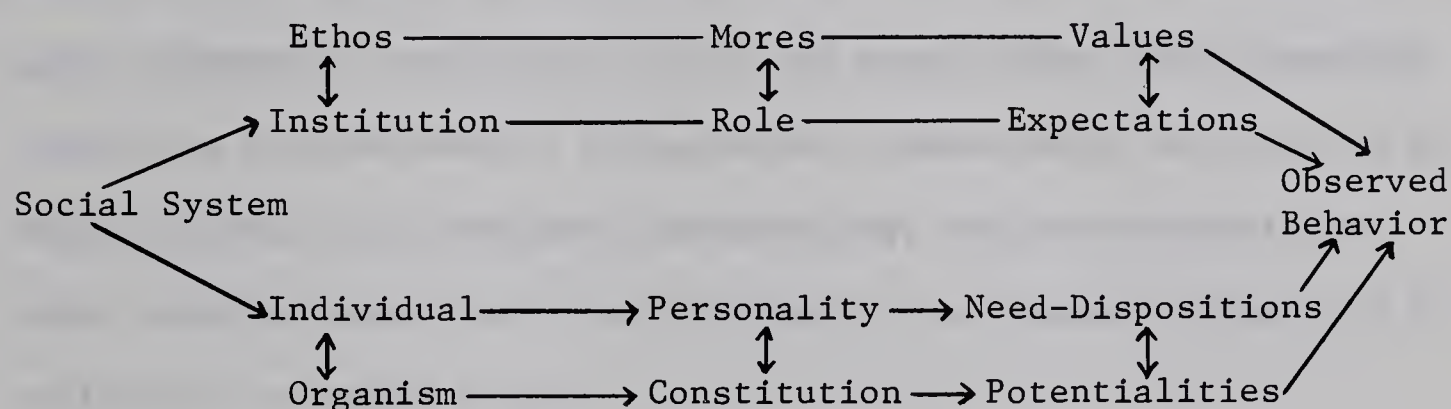


FIGURE 1

GETZELS' SOCIAL SYSTEMS MODEL⁵

Getzels and Guba conceive of the social system as involving two major classes of phenomena, which are "conceptually independent

⁴J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," *The School Review*, LXV (Winter, 1957), pp. 423-430.

⁵Jacob W. Getzels and H. A. Thelen, "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System," *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups*, The Fifty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1960), p. 73.

and phenomenally interactive."⁶ First, there are the institutions with certain *roles* and *expectations* that will fulfill the goals of the system. Second, within the system are individuals with certain *personalities* and *need-dispositions*, whose interactions comprise what is generally called "social behavior." Getzels and Guba state that social behavior may be considered as a function of the following major elements: institution, role, and expectation, which together constitute the *nomothetic*, or normative, dimension of activity in a social system; and individual, personality, and need-disposition, which together constitute the *idiographic*, or personal, dimension of activity in a social system.

Getzels and Thelen⁷ expand on Getzels' and Guba's original model and think of the institution not only in sociological terms but also in cultural terms, for the institution is embedded in a *culture* with certain *mores* and *values*. The expectations of the roles must be related to certain mores and values. The role expectations are actually a function of the values of the culture. Each of these roles involves specific obligations on the part of the person to whom it is assigned. To the extent that the person plays the expected role he will "absorb" the moral imperatives or values of the role. ". . . By virtue of his

⁶J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, *op. cit.*, p. 424.

⁷J. W. Getzels and H. A. Thelen, *op. cit.*, pp. 53-82.

membership in the society, the individual is confronted with the problem of the degrees and modes of acceptance or rejection of these values."⁸ As the person plays various roles he will internalize a framework of values which will "control" his behavior, for the determinants of a person's actions are in large part shaped by his socialization (interaction with society). The specific impact of socialization on the individual varies, of course, according to his particular life experience and also the innate characteristics with which his social experience interacts.

C. Kluckhohn sees any given act as a compromise between motivation, situational conditions, available means, and values. He recognizes the possibility of other determinants of action but in the long run the person who disregards values is not behaving expediently. "Most selective behavior therefore involves either the values of the actor or those of others or both."⁹ Here again, actions are seen as being affected by socialization.

When choice of action is possible, values function as a

⁸Talcott Parsons and Edward Shils (eds.), *Toward a General Theory of Action* (Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. 181.

⁹Clyde Kluckhohn, *op. cit.*, pp. 402-403.

determinant, a commitment to action. Others state that all behavior is controlled by values.^{10, 11}

Values may also be considered to be empirically demonstrable through the actions and attitudes of the persons holding them. When persons "experience, perceive, and interpret" situations which they encounter they demonstrate their values.

Jacob and Flink discuss the characteristics of values. They state that:

(1) Values arise in response to the necessity in all human behavior for the exercise of choice among mutually exclusive alternatives of action. Values possess the property of *selectivity*, that is, the quality of ordering the options available in terms which those who have to make the choices will accept as decisive.

(2) Values do *not* have the property of universality. That is, all men are not bound by identical norms in making choices. *Variability* of values is evident from individual to individual; but most particularly among well-knit social groups and cultures.

(3) Values have the property of substantial *continuity* from generation to generation; but this continuity derives mainly from social learning. . . .

(4) Values can and do *change*, though they have a strong hold upon most human beings and constitute a relatively stable component of the personality.

¹⁰O. B. Graff and C. M. Street, "Developing a Value Framework for Educational Administration," in R. F. Campbell and Russell Gregg (eds.) *Administrative Behavior in Education* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 136.

¹¹T. M. Pierce and E. C. Merrill, "The Individual and Administrative Behavior," in Campbell and Gregg, *op. cit.*, pp. 336, 349, 352.

(5) To a very large extent, values are associated with the roles which human beings fulfill in society, or which they aspire to fulfill. In this connection, values have the property of *imposing obligations*, or defining what is socially expected of the person in a certain role. Conversely, role values determine the *rights* which a person can expect to claim by virtue of fulfilling his role obligations according to expectations.

(6) Values have the property of inducing *self-evaluation*, that is, the capacity of a person to judge the propriety of his own conduct in reference to standards he has learned to apply to himself. . . .

(7) Values have the property of *self-inhibition*, that is, the restraint of action considered improper by a process of internalized control, rather than by external coercive sanctions. Often external sanctions are exerted to reinforce the internal ones where societies seek to assure uniform behavior. But it is ability to command a person's own mechanisms of control which is the property of authentic "value."¹²

Jacob and Flink substantiate the statement made previously that values determine behavior.

Changing Values

Another point made by Jacob and Flink, that values do change, is well supported by Riesman¹³ and Spindler¹⁴ who originally

¹²Philip E. Jacob and James J. Flink, "Values and Their Function in Decision-Making," (Pittsburg, Penn.: University of Pennsylvania Studies of Social Values and Public Policy, 1962), pp. 15-16. (unpublished paper)

¹³David Riesman, Nathan Glazer, and Reuel Denney, *The Lonely Crowd* (New Haven and London: The Yale University Press, 1950).

¹⁴George D. Spindler, "Education in a Transforming American Culture," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXV (1955), pp. 145-156.

hypothesized the present existence of changing values. Spindler comments that it appears that a major shift in American values is taking place. He finds it convenient to label this shift as being from *traditional* to *emergent*.¹⁵

Using Riesman's broad hypothesis, that there is a shift in values from "inner-direction" to "other-direction," Spindler categorizes values as traditional or emergent. The traditional values are puritan morality (i.e. respectability, self-denial, sexual constraint), work-success ethic, individualism, achievement, and future-time orientation. The emergent values of sociability, relativistic moral attitudes, consideration for others, hedonistic or present-time orientation, and conformity to the group are replacing the traditional values.

Kluckhohn and Strodbeck emphasize the modification over time of values and beliefs, even when they appear deeply entrenched in a society.¹⁶ The same is evident in the lives of individuals, though the capacity for change seems to vary among individuals and according to age.

Spindler hypothesizes that chronological age and traditional values are positively related, and that teachers generally have more

¹⁵*Ibid.*, p. 149.

¹⁶Florence R. Kluckhohn and Fred L. Strodbeck, *Variations in Value Orientations* (Evanston, Ill.; and Elmsford, N.Y.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1961).

emergent values than do administrators. School boards are hypothesized to be the most traditional because they represent the *status quo* elements of the community, and the higher age ranges.¹⁷

Getzels elaborates on Spindler's categorization of values by distinguishing between *sacred* and *secular* values. The sacred values which we all believe are democracy, individualism, equality, human perfectability. The secular values -- the operating, down-to-earth beliefs -- are the work-success ethic, future-time orientation, independence or the autonomous self, and puritan morality. The sacred values have remained stable, according to Getzels, but the secular values are liable to the strains and cleavages of such things as regionalism, social class, and social change.¹⁸

Although Allport, Vernon and Lindzey,¹⁹ and Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck²⁰ have developed their own value structures which have valid dimensions, the rationale developed by Spindler and Getzels has provided the framework for the consideration of values in the present study.

¹⁷George D. Spindler, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

¹⁸Jacob W. Getzels, "Changing Values Challenge the Schools," *The School Review*, LXV (Spring, 1957), pp. 92-102.

¹⁹G. W. Allport, P. E. Vernon, and G. Lindzey, *Study of Values* (third edition; Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960).

²⁰Florence R. Kluckhohn and Fred L. Strodtbeck, *op. cit.*

II. PERCEPTION

It is the purpose of this section to discuss the nature of perception and a current theory of perception upon which this study is based.

Nature of Perception

When dealing with perceptions, it must be recognized that each person is limited in what he perceives and interprets what he sees in terms of his own experiences and his own background of meanings. The earliest work in perception dealt with judgment of objects, not of people, and it examined the influence of cues from the outside surroundings rather than the influences from within the individual. Bruner²¹ describes the "New Look" in perception as one in which personal behavioral determinants of the perceptual process -- needs, values, cultural background -- are being stressed.

Costello and Zalkind²² suggest that the influence on perception of the characteristics of the perceiver, of the perceived, and of the situation is presently of particular relevance to administrative practice.

²¹J. S. Bruner, "The 'New Look' in Perception," in T. W. Costello and S. S. Zalkind, *Psychology in Administration* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), pp. 7-14.

²²T. W. Costello and S. S. Zalkind, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

Ittleson and Cantril²³ discuss the above characteristics as "except fors." Aspects of the perceptual experience *except for* which the experience would not in fact be the one under consideration include: (1) A living organism (the perceiver). (2) Otherness or externality (everything in the situation other than the perceiver). The authors are concerned with externality in so far as it is knowable to the physical sciences and as it enters into the perceptual experience with relevance to the living organism. (3) Relating phenomena or impingements (the physical energies related to the externality which impinge upon the organism and to which the organism has some physiological sensitivity). (4) Physiological excitation. Impingements are of relevance only if they cause some physiological excitation in the perceiver. (5) Awareness. Ittleson and Cantril believe awareness is essential as long as perception is considered from the standpoint of the perceiving organism. (6) Unconscious aspects. Perception involves the unconscious process of weighing a large amount of varied and sometimes contradictory information to place the important information in perspective. (7) Assumptions. This term refers to the weighted averages of previous experiences as they are brought forward to the present occasion. Assumptions indicate the effect of numerous past perceptions. (8) Purpose. The term refers to the intention a perceiver has to experience a particular

²³W. H. Ittleson and H. Cantril, *Perception: A Transactional Approach* (New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1954), pp. 11-13.

consequence. (9) Action. Ittleson and Cantril include here the consequences of previous action as brought to the present occasion through the perceiver's assumptions, as well as contemplated future action.

As well, certain characteristics of the situation or the externality -- stereotyping, projection, the halo effect, and perceptual defence -- have been researched and shown to be systematic errors which can and do creep into the perceptual process. All of these factors in addition to characteristics of the perceiver, the perceived, and the situation, must be considered in developing the nature of perception.

Perception Theory

Perception is a process by which a person may make his purposive behavior more effective and satisfying. The individual's rational behavior involves substituting for the complex reality a model of reality that is sufficiently simple to fit in with his needs, values, and expectations. These needs, values, and expectations act as a "frame of reference" which filters out discordant perceptions before they reach consciousness. "The frame of reference serves just as much to validate perception as the perceptions do to validate the frame of reference."²⁴

The *transactional theory of perception* proposed by Ittleson and

²⁴J. G. March and H. A. Simon, *Organizations* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), pp. 151-152.

Cantril²⁵ considers the process of perception as that part of the process of living by which each person, from his unique personal behavioral centre,

. . . creates for himself the world within which he has his life's experiences and through which he strives to gain his satisfaction.²⁶

For Ittleson and Cantril the facts of perception always present themselves through concrete individuals dealing with concrete situations. Perception can only be studied in terms of the *transaction* in which it can be observed. Within such transactions, perceiving is always done by a particular person from his own unique position in space, and time, and with his own combination of values, experiences and needs. Perception always enters into the transaction from the unique *personal behavioral centre* of the perceiver. And within the particular transaction and operating from his own personal behavioral centre, each individual, through perceiving, creates for himself his own psychological environment by attributing certain aspects of his experience to an environment which he believes exists independent of the experience.²⁷

²⁵W. H. Ittleson and H. Cantril, *op. cit.*

²⁶*Ibid.*, p. 5.

²⁷*Ibid.*, p. 2.

Furthermore, each of the actions taken on the basis of these perceptions provides a check on the "perceptual prediction" or perceptual accuracy on which the action was based. In other words, each action taken is a check on an assumption. In some cases the consequences of action are directly contradictory to the predictions on which they were based. These contradictions force a new awareness of the situation.

Thus, perceptions provide predictions as to what will probably happen if particular actions are taken. Those actions will be effective only in so far as the predictions derived from the perceptions correspond to what is actually experienced when action is taken. For Ittleson and Cantril the central problem of perception is to study the degree of correspondence between the significances which are externalized and those which are encountered.²⁸

Although Ittleson and Cantril's theory of perception is not unique in dealing with the social situation, it enunciates concepts which best satisfy the requirements of this study.

The following sections shall be devoted to an examination of related research in the areas of values and perception.

III. REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON VALUES

The studies reviewed here are seen as supporting the hypothesis that a relationship does exist between values and the perception of leader behavior.

²⁸*Ibid.*, p. 7.

Differential Values Inventory

An attempt to measure the differential values as hypothesized by Riesman, Spindler and Getzels was made by Prince.²⁹ He felt that if a change in values from traditionalism to a new system of values is taking place in American society, and if individuals could be separated into traditional and emergent groups for the purposes of an empirical study, differences between these groups would have important implications for research in the fields of education and psychology.

His study was undertaken to discover the effects of changing values on an important aspect of American society -- the school system. Specifically, the study looked at the effect of differences in values held by individuals in the school situation on the effectiveness, satisfaction, and confidence of these individuals.

The Differential Values Inventory instrument which was developed by Prince to assess the extent of value change is based on the traditional and emergent categories of Spindler with the following modifications suggested by Getzels: (1) Work-success ethic and achievement orientation were combined into one category because of similarities in definition and (2) consideration for others and conformity to the group were combined into one category again because

²⁹ Richard Prince, "A Study of the Relationships Between Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness in the School Situation," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1957). (microfilm)

of similarities in definition. This gave four categories under each of the traditional and emergent headings.

The instrument consists of sixty-four forced-choice items to determine whether an individual holds to a traditional set of values:

Puritan Morality -- respectability, thrift, self-denial, sexual constraint, respect for elders, feelings of guilt.

Work-Success Ethic -- successful people work hard to become so. Anyone can get to the top if he tries hard enough. Success is a constant goal. There is no resting on past glories. People must work desperately and continuously to convince themselves of their worth.

Individualism -- the individual is sacred and always more important than the group. In one extreme form this value sanctions ego-centricity, expediency, and disregard for other people's rights. In its healthier form the value sanctions independence and originality.

Future-Time Orientation -- the future, not the past, or even the present, is most important. Time is valuable and cannot be wasted. Present needs must be denied for satisfactions to be gained in the future.

or to an emergent set of values:

Sociability -- one should like people and get along well with them. Solitary activities are looked upon with suspicion.

Relativistic Moral Attitude -- absolutes in right and wrong are questionable. Morality is what the group thinks is right.

Conformity - everything is relative to the group. Group harmony is the ultimate goal. Everything one does should be done with regard for others and their feelings.

Present-Time Orientation -- (Hedonism) no one can tell what the future will hold; therefore, one should enjoy the present -- within the limits of the well-rounded, balanced personality and group. Emphasis is on spending money and having fun.

Prince's Study

Prince advanced four questions to be investigated.³⁰ Three of these questions, which are pertinent to this study are:

1. What is the nature of teachers' values?
2. What is the nature of principals' values?
3. Knowing the nature of teachers' and principals' values, what is the effect of the degrees of congruence of teachers' and principals' values on the teachers' confidence in leadership, the teachers' satisfaction, the teachers' rating of the principals' effectiveness, and the principals' rating of the teachers' effectiveness?

When twenty principals, 100 teachers, 602 seniors, and 591 freshmen from twenty-two schools each with enrolments ranging between 500-1000 students were examined, Prince found:

1. Older teachers were more traditional in their value patterns than younger teachers.
2. Older principals were more traditional in their value patterns than younger principals.
3. (a) Value congruence between teachers and principals was directly related to the teachers' confidence in the principals' leadership and to the teachers' rating of the principals' effectiveness.

³⁰*Ibid.*

(b) No significance was found in the relationships between value differences and teacher satisfaction and the principals' rating of teacher effectiveness.

In summary, Prince's findings indicate that:

1. Older teachers and principals exhibit more traditional values than do their younger counterparts.
2. Value congruence between teacher and principal is related to confidence in leadership.

Abbott's Study

Abbott carried out an empirical investigation on the influence of values upon the interpersonal relationships of school superintendents and their boards of education.³¹ The study concerned two problems related to values stated as hypotheses:

1. An individual's own value-orientations will influence his perceptions of the values held by others.
2. Both an individual's values and his value-perceptions will influence his relationship with others.

Twenty-seven superintendents, 213 board members from twenty-seven elementary districts, five high school districts, and eight unit districts located in the Midwest United States were tested using the Differential Values Inventory and a Confidence-in-Leadership Scale. Abbott found:

³¹Max G. Abbott, "Values and Value-Perceptions in Superintendent-School Board Relationships," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1960).

1. An individual's own value-orientations had a significant influence upon his perceptions of the values held by others.

2. The accuracy of value-perceptions increased with an increase in similarity in value-orientations between the perceiver and the perceived. When this similarity occurred the perceptual errors that were made tended to be random. Conversely, when the value-orientations of the perceiver and the perceived were dissimilar, perceptual errors followed a systematic pattern, and errors made in the direction of the perceiver's own value-orientations occurred with a frequency that was significantly greater than would be expected to occur by chance.

Abbott also substantiated some of Prince's findings on the relationship between values and confidence in leadership. He found that board members who were the most similar to their superintendents in value-orientations were found to express slightly higher confidence in those superintendents than did board members who were the least similar to their superintendents in value-orientations.

Board members who perceived their superintendents to be the most similar to themselves in value-orientations were found to express significantly higher confidence in those superintendents than did board members who perceived their superintendents to be the least similar to themselves in value-orientations.

However, Abbott's findings were that older superintendents were more emergent in their values than were younger superintendents. This finding does not follow Prince's finding.

In summary, Abbott's research supports that of Postman, Bruner and McGinnies p. 36 *infra* in demonstrating that values have an important influence on perception. Abbott also shows that there is a relationship between confidence in leadership and perceived similarity in value-orientations.

McPhee's Study

McPhee examined the relationship between the types of values which an individual holds and the types of educational viewpoint to which he subscribes, and the relation of these factors to the degree of local school approval which he provides.³²

The study was applied to 632 respondents in four Midwest United States communities, of which four were superintendents and twenty-six were board members. Of this number 360 were men and 272 were women. The sample was biased towards the upper socio-economic levels.

McPhee hypothesized that:

1. Respondents with emergent values would have more modern educational viewpoints than would respondents with traditional values.
2. Citizens with modern educational viewpoints would tend to approve the schools more than those with traditional educational viewpoints.

³²Roderick F. McPhee, "The Relationship Between Individual Values, Educational Viewpoint, and Local School Approval," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1959). (microfilm)

3. Citizens with emergent values would tend to approve the schools more than those with traditional values.

4. Citizens whose values and educational viewpoint were closest to the values and educational viewpoint of the superintendent and board members would express a higher degree of school approval than citizens whose scores on these measures were most divergent.

McPhee found:

1. Respondents who were emergent in their differential values did tend to be modern in their general educational viewpoint.

2. Respondents with modern educational viewpoints were slightly higher in approval of the local schools than those with traditional educational viewpoints. However, citizens with emergent values apparently did not differ from those with traditional values in terms of local school approval.

3. Respondents whose educational viewpoints were closest to the educational viewpoints of their superintendent of schools were higher in school approval than those whose educational viewpoints were most divergent from the superintendent. However, school approval was not related to the proximity of individual values between the respondents and the superintendent. Similarly, when mean value and educational viewpoint scores were computed for each board of education as a group and the respondents closest to these scores were compared with those most divergent, no relationship was found.

In summary, this study supported the common sense notion that people who hold emergent values will also be "modern" in their viewpoints on education. It was also found that people with emergent educational viewpoints were slightly higher in approval of the local schools than those with traditional educational viewpoints. However, the type of values which an individual holds had no apparent relationship to his approval or non-approval of the schools.

Lupini's Study

This study attempted to assess the extent to which the principal's and teacher's values in a school situation were related to the social and administrative interactions within the school.³³ The examination was focussed primarily on two value variables within the school. These were the extent of similarity between the principal's values and the teacher's values (value-congruence), and the degree of variation in teachers' values in any one school (value-consonance).

Involved in the study were eighty-one principals and 854 teachers from eighty-one elementary schools in the Greater Montreal area. The Differential Values Inventory and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire were administered to the sample.

³³Dante Lupini, "A Study of the Relation of Differential Values to Social and Administrative Interactions," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1965).

Lupini found that Value-Congruence was significantly related to certain aspects of social behavior within the school. However, no statistically significant relationships were found between the similarity in values held by individuals within the school and certain social and administrative interactions. With few exceptions, the values held by principals and teachers showed a significant relationship to the Organizational Climate of schools.

Lupini concludes that the "openness" of climate in the school showed a direct significant relationship to emergent value scores among staff members. These relationships with climate emerged in spite of an absence of significant relationships between the same value scores and the climate subtests. In those schools where the principal and teachers hold to traditional values climates tended to be closed; in schools where individuals hold to emergent value patterns the climate tended to be open.

In summary, Lupini found:

1. A definite relationship between differential values of teachers and principal and "climate" of the school.
2. No significant relationship between the differential values *among* staff members and the "climate" of the school.

Having discussed the pertinent research on values, it is appropriate to consider some aspects of perception research as it pertains to this study.

IV. PERCEPTION RESEARCH

The transactional theory of perception presented by Ittleson and Cantril³⁴ and used as the basic theory of perception for this study suggests that perception must be studied in terms of transactions and that perception comes into the transaction from the unique personal behavioral centre of the viewer. By perceiving, the individual creates his own psychological environment by identifying certain aspects of his experience with an environment which he believes exists independent of his own experience.

The research based on this theory is, at present, limited. However, a number of studies have been carried out using the social perception point of view. Although these studies were not conducted in order to substantiate the transactional theory, they do support the basic premises of the theory. Furthermore, such studies contribute to the development of the hypotheses for this study.

Postman, Bruner and McGinnies' Study

Postman, Bruner and McGinnies³⁵ examined the effect of value preferences for thirty-six words which represented the six values on

³⁴W. H. Ittleson and H. Cantril, *op. cit.*

³⁵L. Postman, J. S. Bruner, and E. McGinnies, "Personal Values as Selective Factors in Perception," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (April, 1952), pp. 394-398.

the Allport-Vernon *Study of Values* upon the time required to recognize these words when presented tachistoscopically. The value categories included religious, political, social, aesthetic, economic and theoretical. The exposure times were at first very short and became increasingly longer until the words were correctly perceived. Subjects responded correctly to shorter exposure of words which belonged to the high-value categories. The investigators' hypothesis, that personal values are demonstrable determinants of what the individual selects perceptually from his environment, was substantiated.

The researchers analyzed the characteristics of the incorrect responses made by the subjects. The response words representing the same value category as the stimulus words themselves were called "co-valuant responses." Responses that represented an opposite meaning were called "contra-valuant responses." Certain other responses were called "nonsense responses." Stimulus words in high-value categories evoked more co-valuant responses than words in low-value areas. Stimulus words in low-value areas evoked more contra-valuant and nonsense words.

Postman, Bruner, and McGinnies concluded that value orientation makes for *perceptual sensitization* to valued stimuli, leads to *perceptual defense* against inimical stimuli, and gives rise to a process of *value resonance* which keeps the person responding in terms of objects valuable to him even when such objects are absent from his immediate environment.

A later study by Haigh and Fiske,³⁶ using a more direct method, yielded a clearer trend with sharper discrimination between the extreme value categories. Both studies showed a relationship between value preference and speed of recognition.

Other Studies

Bruner and Goodman³⁷ used ten-year-olds to report on perceived sizes of coins by use of a spot of light whose size could be altered to match that of the coins seen in a different part of the visual field. The coins used were 1-, 5-, 10-, 25-, and 50-cent pieces. The perceived sizes of all the coins were enhanced. The magnitude of the overestimation increased for successive coin denominations up to the 25-cent piece. A control group was given cardboard discs to use as standards instead of the coins. With these, there was essentially no overestimation. A further comparison was made by using two groups of subjects: one from "poor" homes, and the other from "rich" homes. The poor children "overestimated" the coins definitely more than the rich children.

Bruner and Postman³⁸ investigated the role of symbolism (value)

³⁶G. V. Haigh and D. W. Fiske, "Corroboration of Per-Values as Selective Factors in Perception," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (April, 1952), pp. 394-98.

³⁷J. S. Bruner and L. Goodman, "Value and Need as Organizing Factors in Perception," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLII (1947), pp. 33-44.

³⁸J. S. Bruner and L. Postman, "Symbolic Value as an Organizing Factor in Perception," *Journal of Social Psychology*, XXVII (1948), pp. 203-208.

in influencing visual perception of size. The authors used disk targets. One set bore a United States dollar mark, another set a swastika, and a third set a supposedly neutral symbol, namely a square with its two diagonals marked across it. Each of these symbols were of equal sizes. The targets themselves varied from three-quarters of an inch to a half inch in diameter. The task of the subjects was to adjust the size of a circular disk of light seen elsewhere in the visual field until it appeared equal in size to the symbol bearing disk.

It was supposed that the subjects were oriented positively toward the dollar mark, and negatively towards the swastika. Ten subjects were presented the neutral and positive targets, and ten were presented the neutral and negative targets.

The three symbols made differences in the perceived sizes of the disks. The disks with the dollar signs were perceived as largest, those with the swastika next largest, and those with the square the smallest. Thus the symbolic values of the stimuli proved to be a significant determinant of perceptual organization.

Bruner and Postman explained that what is desired tends to be emphasized in perception through magnification. The persons tend to maximize the reward value of the object. When a negative symbol is of such a nature as to alert the organism to danger or threat, it is reasonable to suppose that positive accentuation may also occur. In terms of the adaptive functions of perception, accentuation of the negative symbols may aid under certain conditions in preparing the person for defense and action.

Thus, the investigators concluded that *value*, whether positive or negative, leads to perceptual accentuation. That which is "important" to the subject looms larger in perception.

Bosetti³⁹ tested the interrelationships which were hypothesized to exist between (a) the degree to which the principal held normative expectations for his role which were congruent with the normative expectations which teachers and superintendent held for his role, (b) the degree to which the principal was accurate in his estimates of how the teachers and the superintendent perceived his leader behavior, and (c) the effectiveness ratings which the principal received from the teachers and from the superintendent.

The principals in thirty elementary-junior high schools were used as "focal positions," and teachers and superintendent in each school area were used as "counter positions." Indices of congruence, sensitivity, and rated effectiveness were computed for each principal and a correlational approach was used to determine the extent of relationship between the three indices.

Significant correlations were found between the degree to which the principal was sensitive to the perceptions of the teaching staff and to the perceptions of the superintendent and the effectiveness ratings which he received from these alter groups. On this basis, it

³⁹Rino A. Bosetti, "Congruence of Expectations, Sensitivity to Perceptions, and Rated Administrative Effectiveness," (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, 1966).

was concluded that accuracy of interpersonal perception is an important dimension of administrative behavior which is rated as effective.

Gage and Cronbach⁴⁰ suggest that in the bulk of research to date, social perception as measured is a process dominated far more by what the Perceiver brings to the "transaction" than by what he takes in during it. The Perceiver's favorability toward the Perceived, before or after he observes the Perceived, and his implicit personality theory, formed by his experiences prior to his interaction with the Perceived, seem to determine his perceptions.

In summary, these studies on perception suggest:

1. that there is something that the individual perceiver contributes to his perceptions;
2. that personal values do affect perceptions;
3. that what is important to the perceiver looms larger in perception; and
4. that accuracy of perception is related to effective leader behavior.

V. SUMMARY

The theoretical framework presented at the beginning of this chapter and the related studies on values and perception which have

⁴⁰N. L. Gage and L. J. Cronbach, "Conceptual and Methodological Problems in Interpersonal Perception," *Psychological Review*, LXII No. 6 (Nov., 1955), p. 420.

just been reviewed suggest some general hypotheses relevant to the present study:

1. Principals and teachers do differ in their value orientations.
2. Teachers with different values will perceive their principal's leader behavior differently.
3. Principals' values do not affect the teachers' perception of the principals' leader behavior.

There follows, in the next chapter, a presentation of the research design and the research hypotheses which is based on the framework of the preceding chapters.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter explains the design of this study, the instrumentation and the collection of the data. Also the characteristics of the data are discussed. The research hypotheses are presented in detail. An explanation of the statistical treatments applied completes the chapter.

I. RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This study was designed to obtain values scores for each of the respondents -- the teachers and principals -- and ratings of leader behavior on the basis of teachers' descriptions. Data from which these scores were computed were collected from two groups of respondents -- principals and teachers.

Teachers were asked to complete questionnaires on which they indicated their descriptions of their principal's behavior. Teacher values were assessed by means of another set of questionnaires, while a third questionnaire collected background information. Principals also completed general information questionnaires and values inventories.

The design of this study attempted to overcome a problem noted

in the studies of Prince,¹ Abbott,² McPhee,³ and Lupini⁴ by treating values scores obtained by teachers as individual indices to be compared with the principal's values scores. In this way the effect or relationship of teachers' values and principal's values could be compared. Grouping teachers' values scores to give an average score for each school distorts and masks the true effect or relationship between values and perception of leader behavior.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was used to provide individual behavior assessments of principals. Again, no attempt was made to construct a single leader behavior score for each principal. Such an attempt would have masked the individual teacher perceptions which are the crux of this study.

¹Richard Prince, "A Study of the Relationships Between Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness in the School Situation," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1957). (microfilm)

²Max G. Abbott, "Values and Value-Perceptions in Superintendent-School Board Relationships," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1960). (microfilm)

³Roderick F. McPhee, "The Relationship Between Individual Values, Educational Viewpoint, and Local School Approval," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1959). (microfilm)

⁴Dante Lupini, "A Study of the Relation of Differential Values to Social and Administrative Interactions," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1965).

Instrumentation

General Questionnaire. This questionnaire was designed to collect data on personal characteristics of respondents and school size. The personal characteristics of teachers and principals have been used basically to describe the sample studied and to determine the relationship of age to the type of value orientations held. Information collected included: number of teachers on staff, years of experience, age, sex, grade taught, years of training, marital status, and in the case of teachers, number of years association with the present principal. (This instrument appears in Appendices B and C). There is no statistical evidence for the degree of reliability and validity of this instrument. However, because of the factual nature of the questions and the assurance of complete anonymity of the respondent, there appears to be an acceptable degree of face validity.

Differential Values Inventory (DVI). The Differential Values Inventory was originally developed by Richard Prince⁵ at the Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago. It contains sixty-four forced-choice items representing eight categories related to the traditional and emergent conceptualization as developed by Getzels and Spindler. The eight value categories are:

⁵Richard Prince, *Ibid.*

<u>Traditional</u>	<u>Emergent</u>
1. Moral commitment	1. Moral relativism
2. Individualism or independence	2. Conformity
3. Future-time orientation	3. Present-time orientation
4. Work-success ethic	4. Sociability

The instrument has been used on numerous occasions and has proven to have an acceptable degree of construct validity. In all cases, it has tended to support the underlying theory as proposed by Spindler.

The DVI was originally devised for use with adolescents. However, McPhee⁶ revised some items to improve its applicability for adult groups; and Abbott⁷ performed an item analysis on McPhee's revised DVI and rewrote items which failed to discriminate at the desired level. A further item analysis was made by Abbott prior to his acceptance of the instrument in its present form. The present investigation used the DVI as revised by Abbott.

In scoring the DVI each Traditional item that the respondent selects adds one point to his values score. Thus, the higher scores represent the Traditional responses and the lower scores the Emergent responses. Theoretically, the scores can range from 0 to 64. However, in reality the range of scores is seldom so extreme.

⁶Roderick F. McPhee, *Ibid.*

⁷Max G. Abbott, *Ibid.*

Further discussion of the instrument is found in the Review of Related Studies, Chapter II, pp. 29 ff. *supra*.

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The LBDQ was developed under the leadership of Shartle of Ohio State University, as a project of the Ohio State Leadership Studies. Hemphill and Coons⁸ constructed the original questionnaire. This was later revised by Halpin and Winer⁹ who identified two dimensions which could be isolated to measure leader behavior, namely, Consideration and Initiating Structure in Interaction.

The main features and purposes of the LBDQ are described by Halpin in his manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire:

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) provides a technique whereby group members may describe the leader behavior of designated leaders in formal organizations. The LBDQ contains items, each of which describes a specific way in which a leader may behave. The respondent indicates the frequency with which he perceives the leader to engage in each type of behavior by marking one of the five adverbs: always, often, occasionally, seldom, never. These responses are obtained from the members of the leader's immediate work group and are scored on two dimensions of leader behavior. For each dimension, the

⁸John K. Hemphill and Alvin E. Coons, *Leader Behavior of the Airplane Commander* (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1952).

⁹A. W. Halpin and B. J. Winer, *The Leadership Behavior of the Airplane Commander* (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1952).

scores from the several group members are then averaged to yield an index of the leader's behavior in respect to that dimension.¹⁰

The two dimensions of leader behavior mentioned above have been defined earlier.

This instrument has been employed in numerous research studies in at least three areas: industry, military, and education. Reliability coefficients for the LBDQ have been established at .92 for Consideration and .83 for Initiating Structure. These scores were estimated by the Spearman-Brown prophesy formula from split-half reliabilities, and then corrected for attenuation. Halpin states in his manual:

. . . in several studies where the agreement among respondents in describing their respective leaders has been checked by a "between-vs.-within-group" analysis of variance, the F ratios all have been found significant at the .01 level.¹¹

This means that respondents tend to agree in their evaluation of the same leader.

The LBDQ was used in this study to obtain descriptions of leader behavior on an individual basis. Each of the ratings (Consideration and Initiating Structure) by each of the respondents was compared to the others on the basis of the values criteria.

¹⁰A. W. Halpin, "Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire," College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, 1957, p. 1.

¹¹*Ibid.*, p. 6.

Using the instruments just discussed, data were collected using the sample and the methodology which is now to be discussed.

Methodology

The Sample. This study was accomplished by analyzing data collected using questionnaires which were answered by principals and teachers in one city school system in Saskatchewan. The following criteria were used in selecting the sample to be studied:

1. Elementary schools (grades kindergarten to eight) under one general administration and in one geographic location.
2. Schools having a teaching staff of five or more teachers including the principal.
3. Regular teachers who have been associated with their principal in that school for at least six months prior to the study.
4. Schools meeting the above criteria whose principals and teachers agreed to participate.

On the basis of these criteria, thirty-nine schools were selected to take part in the study. These thirty-nine schools involved thirty-nine principals, and 446 teachers.

Collection of the Data. Once permission to use the schools was granted, principals of selected schools were contacted by letter requesting the cooperation of their school staff in the study. (See letter in Appendix A). Stamped, self-addressed reply cards were enclosed for their convenience in replying.

To obtain the data needed, the investigator distributed questionnaires to each school and made arrangements to collect them. Specific directions for completing the questionnaires were enclosed with each set of instruments. Questionnaires which were incomplete at the time of collection were properly coded and later forwarded to the investigator by mail.

Response. As Table I indicates, the returns for the total sample were excellent. However, two schools were eliminated from the sample because one principal did not return his questionnaires and another principal did not complete all necessary information. A number of teachers, in addition to those automatically dropped from the sample because of their principals, did not complete sufficient information on their questionnaires and therefore were eliminated from the sample.

TABLE I
NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED AND RETURNED

Respondents	Questionnaires Distributed	Questionnaires Returned	Per Cent Returned
Principals	39	38	97
Teachers	446	402	90
Totals	485	440	91

Table II shows the final number of useful responses.

TABLE II
NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES COMPRISING FINAL SAMPLE

Respondents	Questionnaires Returned	Questionnaires Completed	Per Cent Completed
Principals	38	37	97
Teachers	402	376	94
Totals	440	413	94

Characteristics of Respondents. Table III provides a short summary of selected data concerning the personal characteristics of all respondents whose questionnaires were used in this study. Although this study did not use all of the data concerning the personal characteristics of principals and teachers in the analysis of the data, they have been included here in order to describe the sample studied.

1. Principals. Twenty-seven of the thirty-seven principals under study were males and sixty-two per cent of the total group were married. Over sixty-seven per cent of principals were between forty-one and sixty years of age. Ninety-one per cent had at least four years training and fifty-seven per cent had five or more years training.

TABLE III
SELECTED PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Personal Characteristics	Principals N=37	Teachers N=376
SEX:		
1. Male	27	72
2. Female	10	304
3. Not Stated		
MARITAL STATUS:		
1. Single	11	125
2. Married	23	236
3. Widowed or Divorced	2	15
4. Not Stated	1	
AGE:		
1. 20 or under		21
2. 21 - 30	2	204
3. 31 - 40	9	58
4. 41 - 50	7	44
5. 51 - 60	18	42
6. 61 or over	1	7
7. Not Stated		
EXPERIENCE:		
1. 1 year		30
2. 2 - 4		129
3. 5 - 8	1	73
4. 9 - 12	4	39
5. 13 - 16	6	31
6. 17 or more	25	72
7. Not Stated	1	2
YEARS OF TRAINING:		
1. 1	1	76
2. 2	1	203
3. 3	1	45
4. 4	13	33
5. 5	17	11
6. 6 or more	4	7
7. Not Stated		1

TABLE III (continued)

Personal Characteristics	Principals N=37	Teachers N=376
GRADE TAUGHT:		
1. Kg		25
2. 1		58
3. 2	1	47
4. 3		50
5. 4	1	46
6. 5	2	40
7. 6	6	38
8. 7	4	55
9. 8	23	14
10. Not Stated		3
EXPERIENCE WITH PRINCIPAL:		
1. 1 year		194
2. 2		62
3. 3		35
4. 4		22
5. 5		11
6. 6 or more		47
7. Not Stated		5

2. Teachers. As was expected, eighty-one per cent of the teachers were females, while sixty-two per cent of the total group were married. Sixty per cent of the teachers were less than thirty-one years of age. Seventy-four per cent of the teachers had two years or less training but of the total group, fifty-seven per cent had five or more years experience. Fifty-one per cent had one year experience working with the present principal.

Summary. Approximately seventy per cent of the principals in the sample studied were male while eighty-one per cent of the teachers were female. Over sixty-seven per cent of the principals were forty-one years old or over but sixty per cent of the teachers were less than thirty-one years old. Most principals had at least one degree while most teachers had two years or less training.

In the next section are presented the research hypotheses.

II. HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses outlined in this section have been derived from the theoretical framework and the related studies presented in Chapter II. This study is the first one to relate values and perception of leader behavior in the manner previously outlined. As a result, there appeared to be insufficient concrete evidence on which to base the use of directional hypotheses. Therefore, all hypotheses have been presented in the null form.

Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference between the means of the total values scores on the DVI of teachers and principals.

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference between the mean LBDQ scores of principals in schools where teachers and principal share similar value patterns and scores of principals in schools where teachers and principal hold differential value patterns.

- 2.1 In comparing LBDQ scores of principals in schools where teachers and principal share similar emergent value patterns and scores of principals in schools where teachers and principal hold differential value patterns, there is no significant difference between mean scores on:
 - a) the Initiating Structure dimension
 - b) the Consideration dimension
- 2.2 In comparing LBDQ scores of principals in schools where teachers and principal share similar traditional value patterns and scores of principals in schools where teachers and principal hold differential value patterns, there is no significant difference between mean scores on:
 - a) the Initiating Structure dimension
 - b) the Consideration dimension

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant difference between the mean LBDQ scores of traditional principals described by traditional teachers and the scores of emergent principals described by emergent teachers.

- 3.1 In comparing LBDQ scores of traditional principals described by traditional teachers and scores of emergent principals described by emergent teachers, there is no significant difference between mean scores on:
 - a) the Initiating Structure dimension
 - b) the Consideration dimension

Hypothesis Four

There are no significant differences among the mean LBDQ scores of principals described by teachers who have similar values.

4.1 In comparing LBDQ scores of traditional principals and the scores of emergent principals when both groups are described by emergent teachers, there is no significant difference between mean scores on:

- a) the Initiating Structure dimension
- b) the Consideration dimension

4.2 In comparing the LBDQ scores of traditional principals and the scores of emergent principals when both groups are described by traditional teachers, there is no significant difference between mean scores on:

- a) the Initiating Structure dimension
- b) the Consideration dimension

Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference between the mean LBDQ scores ascribed by teachers who are high on each dimension of the Differential Values Inventory (DVI) and the mean LBDQ scores ascribed by teachers who are low on the same dimensions of the DVI.

5.1 In comparing the LBDQ scores of principals provided by teachers who are high on the Work-Success, Future-Time, Independence, and Moral Commitment dimensions of the DVI and the LBDQ scores of principals provided by teachers who are low on the same DVI dimensions, there is no significant difference in mean scores on:

- a) the Initiating Structure dimension
- b) the Consideration dimension

III. TREATMENT OF THE DATA

The fundamental purpose of this study was to determine the effect of values on the perception of leader behavior. In order to

carry out this purpose, the data collected were treated in the following manner.

Values Scores

A computer program was prepared to score the forced-choice items of the Differential Values Inventory. Obtained were the total scores for each of the eight dimensions of the DVI. The first four scores for the traditional dimensions were totalled and the values score provided. (The emergent dimension scores were omitted from this last procedure because including them would have caused each total to equal 64).

The values scores ranged from a high of 52 to a low of seven. The median score was 30.14. This median was used as a guide to dichotomize all the respondents' scores into two groups; those with values scores above the median were called traditional value-oriented and those below the median were called emergent value-oriented.

Leader Behavior Scores

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaires were manually scored to obtain scores on each of the Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions. Three hundred and seventy-six leader behavior scores were computed. As it was not the intent of this study to deal with a composite leader behavior score for each principal, the scores as provided by each of his teachers were not averaged.

Summary of Statistical Tests Used

In the analysis of the data t-tests for significance of difference between means were used. Throughout the analysis the .05 level of confidence was established for rejection of the null hypothesis. In instances where the null hypotheses were rejected at this level, the actual level of probability was determined and indicated.

The parametric t-test was chosen to test the hypotheses of this study because it was considered that the assumptions of the t-test were met.¹² By using a large population, the assumption of normality of the population appeared to be justified. Homogeneity of variance was tested in each comparison. All but two instances yielded equality of the population variances. In these two cases the Welch test was applied in addition to the t-test.¹³

The Welch test is an approximate method of testing the significance of difference between means when the variances are not homogeneous. This test makes an adjustment in the number of degrees of freedom and so corrects the effects of the t-test.

¹²George A. Ferguson, *Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education* (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), p. 138.

¹³*Ibid.*, p. 143.

CHAPTER IV

TESTING THE HYPOTHESES

This study is based on the premise that values affect the perception of behavior and that the perceptual differences caused by such values could be tested statistically. This chapter outlines the procedures used in testing the hypotheses. The null hypotheses, the statistical tests to which they were exposed and the results of these treatments are given. The significance of the results are also discussed.

The t-test for significant difference between means was used to test all hypotheses, except in two instances where the Welch test was used to correct the t-value because the assumption of homogeneity of variance could not be met. In all cases the .05 level of significance was required for rejection of the null hypothesis.

As stated earlier, the extent to which these findings can be generalized is limited. The research was confined to one urban elementary school system and therefore generalizations to other types of school organizations or to other geographical locations should be made with caution.

I. HYPOTHESIS ONE

Test of Hypothesis I

Hypothesis I stated that there is no significant difference between the means of the total values scores on the DVI of teachers and principals.

The group of 376 teachers was compared with the group of thirty-seven principals using the t-test of significant difference between the means. The results of this test are indicated in Table IV.

TABLE IV
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VALUE-MEANS FOR TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

Respondents	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Teachers	376	30.09	7.50	0.55
Principals	37	29.38	6.34	

With 411 degrees of freedom the critical value required for significance of difference was 1.960. The calculated value of $t = .55$ was not significant at the .05 level of confidence and so the null hypothesis was accepted. This finding indicates that there was no significant difference between the mean values scores of teachers as a group and of principals as a group. In other words, in this study, teachers and principals, as groups, did not differ significantly in their value orientation as described by the DVI.

Discussion

The degree to which these findings may be generalized is limited. It may be concluded that no significant difference was found to exist in this instance. Certainly, this does not constitute

proof that no such difference exists in a general population of principals and teachers. The findings of Prince¹ and Lupini² indicate a significant difference to exist between the value patterns of principals and teachers.

In addition, caution must be exercised in interpreting results where the null hypothesis is not rejected. Ferguson states that when the null hypothesis is not rejected, "this does not mean that the null hypothesis is true . . . To rigorously demonstrate the truth of the null hypothesis is a logical impossibility."³ Thus, although this study failed to show that principals' and teachers' values are significantly different, it does not *prove* that their values are the same.

A close examination of the principals' and teachers' groups indicates that generally principals were older than teachers (Chapter III, pp. 51 ff. *supra*). Most principals were male while most teachers were female. Most principals had at least one degree whereas most teachers had two years or less training. It is quite possible

¹Richard Prince, "A Study of the Relationships Between Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness in the School Situation," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1957). (microfilm)

²Dante Lupini, "A Study of the Relation of Differential Values to Social and Administrative Interactions," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Alberta, 1965).

³George A. Ferguson, *Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education* (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959), p. 138.

that the present findings do not support Spindler's "theory" that principals are more traditional than teachers or support previous research because of one or more of these factors.

On the basis of Prince's findings⁴ age should not be considered as a factor. Abbott, on the other hand, found that older superintendents tended to be more emergent than younger superintendents.⁵ In Abbott's study is a precedent which refutes Spindler's theory and Prince's findings. The reversal has appeared again in this study. The findings in this instance should not be considered without reference to the other variables of sex and extent of training.

It is possible that the differences in training have made the principals' group appear more emergent in relation to the teachers' group than would be the case if teachers, generally, had more extensive professional training. Spindler hypothesizes that students will be found at two points on the traditional-emergent value continuum because it is clear that those coming from traditionalist family environments will tend to hold traditionalistic values whereas students who come from emergent-oriented families will tend to appear closer to the emergent end of the continuum.⁶ Beginning teachers with

⁴Richard Prince, *Ibid.*

⁵Max G. Abbott, "Values and Value-Perceptions in Superintendent-School Board Relationships," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1960).

⁶George D. Spindler, "Education in a Transforming American Culture," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXV (1955), p. 151.

little training have not proceeded far from their status as students. Therefore it appears reasonable to suggest that *if* teachers tend to come from traditional rather than emergent families, then with more training of the type presently provided by teacher-training institutions they would likely become more emergent-oriented and so differ from principals in their value-orientations to a greater extent than in this study.

The significance of the hypotheses to follow should not be questioned as a result of the findings of this hypothesis because the remaining hypotheses are based on comparisons of portions of groups of teachers and principals, whereas, Hypothesis I was based on the total groups.

II. HYPOTHESIS TWO

Test of Hypothesis II.1a

This null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean scores on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ of principals in schools where teachers and principals share emergent value patterns (Te and Pe) and schools where teachers and principals hold differential value patterns (Td and Pd).

To test this hypothesis and succeeding hypotheses, groups were established on the basis of the criterion variable -- values. The median values score was determined for the total group of

principals and teachers. Scores higher than the median were classed as traditional value scores and scores lower than the median were called emergent value scores. Mean scores for the criterion variable were computed on the basis of the criterion variable dichotomy and were compared using the t-statistic.

One hundred and ten teachers shared emergent values with their principals. On the other hand, 165 teachers held values different from their principals. The significance of difference between the means of these dichotomized groups was tested using the t-test. The results are illustrated in Table V.

TABLE V
COMPARISON OF MEAN INITIATING STRUCTURE SCORES
FOR Te AND Pe GROUPS AND FOR Td AND Pd GROUPS

Value Patterns of Group	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Emergent Group	110	39.63	7.16	2.32*
Differential Group	165	41.81	7.91	

*significant at the .05 level of confidence

With 273 degrees of freedom the critical value required was 1.960. The t-value of 2.32 was significant beyond the .05 (nearly .02) level of confidence. This indicates that there is a significant difference between the mean scores on the Initiating Structure dimension

of the LBDQ of principals in schools where teachers and principals shared emergent value patterns and schools where teachers and principals held differential value patterns. In other words, there is a significant difference in the way that teachers described principals' behavior in getting the job done in situations in which principals and teachers held similar emergent values and situations in which principals and teachers held differing values.

Test of Hypothesis II.1b

Hypothesis II.1b stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean scores on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ of principals in schools where teachers and principals shared emergent value patterns (Te and Pe) and schools where teachers and principals held differential value patterns (Td and Pd).

As in Hypothesis II.1a, 110 teachers shared emergent values with their principals while 165 teachers held values different from their principals. A t-test was used to test the significance of the difference of the means of these dichotomous groups. The results of this treatment are indicated in Table VI.

The critical value required with 273 degrees of freedom was 1.960. The t-value of 0.24 was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. This finding indicates that there is no significant difference between the mean scores on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ of principals in schools where teachers and principals

shared emergent value patterns and schools where teachers and principals held differential value patterns.

TABLE VI
COMPARISON OF MEAN CONSIDERATION SCORES FOR
Te AND Pe GROUPS AND FOR Td AND Pd GROUPS

Value Patterns of Group	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Emergent Group	110	45.18	9.52	0.24
Differential Group	165	44.91	9.24	

Test of Hypothesis II.2a

Hypothesis II.2a stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean scores on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ of principals in schools where teachers and principals shared traditional value patterns (Tt and Pt) and schools where teachers and principals held differential value patterns (Td and Pd).

One hundred and one teachers shared traditional value patterns with their principals, whereas 165 teachers had value patterns different from their principals. To test the significance of difference between means of these dichotomous groups, a t-test was employed. The results are illustrated in Table VII.

TABLE VII

COMPARISON OF MEAN INITIATING STRUCTURE SCORES
FOR Tt AND Pt GROUPS AND FOR Td AND Pd GROUPS

Value Patterns of Group	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Traditional Group	101	44.02	9.03	2.09*
Differential Group	165	41.81	7.91	

*significant at the .05 level of confidence

For 266 degrees of freedom the critical value was 1.960. With a t-value of 2.09 the t-test was significant at the .05 level of confidence. This result shows that there is a significant difference between the way that traditional teachers described the Initiating Structure dimension of principal leader behavior and the way that teachers with value patterns which are different from their principals described their principals on the same dimension.

Test of Hypothesis II.2b

This hypothesis stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean scores on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ of principals in schools where teachers and principals shared traditional value patterns (Tt and Pt) and schools where teachers and principals held differential value patterns (Td and Pd).

Traditional value patterns were shared with principals by 101 teachers. On the other hand, 165 teachers had value patterns different from their principals. The significance of difference between the means of these two groups was determined by the t-test. The results are indicated in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII
COMPARISON OF MEAN CONSIDERATION SCORES FOR
Tt AND Pt GROUPS AND FOR Td AND Pd GROUPS

Value Patterns of Group	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Traditional Group	101	46.60	8.67	1.48
Differential Group	165	44.91	9.24	

Again the critical value was 1.960 for 266 degrees of freedom. This t-value of 1.48 indicated no significant difference between means at the .05 level of confidence. The finding shows that there is no significant difference between the way that traditional teachers perceived traditional principals on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ and the perceptions on the same dimension of teachers whose values differed from those of their principals.

Discussion

A general observation made of all four parts of Hypothesis II shows that a significant difference exists in descriptions on the

Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ but not on the Consideration dimension. Why should a difference in value patterns affect the perception of Initiating Structure attributes in the principal and not affect the Consideration attributes? Halpin's definitions of the two dimensions of the LBDQ and the following discussion provide some answers. Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done.⁷ Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of the group.⁸

One would expect a person who subscribes to the Work-Success Ethic (working hard to be successful and no resting on past glories) and to Individualism (in one extreme form this value sanctions egocentricity, expediency, and disregard for other people's rights) as values to differ from a person who believes in Sociability (like people and get along with them; solitary activities are looked upon with suspicion) and Conformity (everything is relative to the group).

Therefore, if a teacher's perceptions are affected by his values, the teacher who has traditional value patterns would be

⁷Andrew W. Halpin, "Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire," College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, 1957, p. 2.

⁸*Ibid.*

expected to rate the traditional principal high on Initiating Structure because this dimension tends to stress ways of getting the job done; whereas, the emergent-oriented teacher would be expected to rate the emergent-oriented principal relatively lower on the Initiating Structure dimension because this is not a strong attribute of an emergent-oriented person. Teachers describing principals where differential value patterns exist would be expected to fall between the previous two descriptions on Initiating Structure because this group has a combination of value orientations.

The findings of Hypothesis II confirm these expectations as Table IX indicates. The mean on Initiating Structure obtained by emergent principals described by emergent teachers is much less than that of traditional principals described by traditional teachers. Descriptions based on differential values obtain a mean which falls between the other two.

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF MEANS ON INITIATING STRUCTURE
FOR PRINCIPALS DESCRIBED BY VARIOUS TEACHERS

Descriptions of Principals by Teachers	Means on Initiating Structure
Te ¹ ---- Pe	39.63
Td ² ---- Pd	41.81
Tt ³ ---- Pt	44.02

¹_e - emergent values

²_d - differential values

³_t - traditional values

On the Consideration dimension, teachers, regardless of value orientation, would be expected to describe principals consistently because teachers require warmth, friendship, acceptance and respect to satisfy their personal needs. The traditional teachers might be expected to rate the traditional principals a little higher on Consideration because their value system might require less performance by the principal on this dimension and therefore an average performance in the area of Consideration would net a slightly better description (higher mean) than an average of all teacher descriptions. Teachers with value patterns different from their principal would be expected to require considerate treatment in direct relation to the values they hold.

Although not at the level of significance required, the above *post facto* expectations are borne out as Table X shows.

TABLE X
COMPARISON OF MEANS ON CONSIDERATION FOR
PRINCIPALS DESCRIBED BY VARIOUS TEACHERS

Descriptions of Principals by Teachers	Means on Consideration
Te ¹ ---- Pe	45.18
Td ² ---- Pd	44.91
Tt ³ ---- Pt	46.60

¹_e - emergent values

²_d - differential values

³_t - traditional values

The fact that significant differences were found between teacher descriptions on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ, and that none were found on the Consideration dimension, appears to have some implications for the principal. These findings suggest that the principal must know his own value orientation as well as the value orientations of the teachers on his staff. In addition, if the principal is able to see his own behavior as it is perceived by his teachers on the basis of their value orientations, he will be in a position to either change his future behavior, especially in Initiating Structure, so that it is congruent with value-based expectations of individual teachers, or to modify the expectations and the resulting perceptions of those teachers. In the area of Consideration, the principal must be aware of other factors, rather than values, which affect the teachers' perception of this type of behavior.

III. HYPOTHESIS THREE

Test of Hypothesis III.1a

Hypothesis III.1a stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean scores on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ of traditional principals described by traditional teachers (Tt and Pt) and the scores of emergent principals described by emergent teachers (Te and Pe).

The traditional group included 101 teachers and the emergent group involved 110 teachers. Because the variances were not homogeneous, the Welch test was used to correct the t-test findings in testing the significance of difference between the means of the dichotomous groups. The results appear in Table XI.

TABLE XI
COMPARISON OF MEAN INITIATING STRUCTURE SCORES
FOR Tt AND Pt GROUPS AND FOR Te AND Pe GROUPS

Value Patterns of Group	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t^1
Traditional Group	101	44.02	9.03	
				3.89****
Emergent Group	110	39.63	7.16	

****significant at the .0001 level of confidence

t^1 - corrected value of t as determined by Welch test

Test of Hypothesis III.1b

No significant difference between the mean scores on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ of traditional principals described by traditional teachers (Tt and Pt) and the scores of emergent principals described by emergent teachers (Te and Pe) was the proposal of Hypothesis III.1b.

Identical groups as in the previous part of Hypothesis III were involved -- 101 traditional- oriented teachers and 110 emergent-

oriented teachers. The t-test was used to determine the significance of difference between the means of these dichotomous groups. The findings are indicated in Table XII.

TABLE XII
COMPARISON OF MEAN CONSIDERATION SCORES FOR
Tt AND Pt GROUPS AND FOR Te AND Pe GROUPS

Value Patterns of Group	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Traditional Group	101	46.60	8.67	1.13
Emergent Group	110	45.18	9.52	

The t-test indicated no significant difference between the mean scores on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ of traditional principals described by traditional teachers and the scores of emergent principals described by emergent teachers. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Discussion

If values act as a "perceptual screen" then the values held by the groups of teachers describing their principals accounts for the highly significant difference between perceptions of traditional teachers and emergent teachers on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ. As explained in the previous hypothesis, a traditional

value-oriented person believes that one must work hard to be successful and, therefore, the job must get done. A principal whose actions tend to support such a belief would be rated high on Initiating Structure by traditional-oriented teachers.

On the other hand, an emergent value-oriented person believes that one should like people and get along with them and that group harmony is the ultimate goal. Thus, much less stress is placed on getting the job done. Such teachers would see their similarly-oriented principals as being sufficiently high on Initiating Structure to satisfy their "needs" but in comparison to traditional-oriented teachers' perceptions of traditional principals, there would be a considerable difference. Such a difference is noted in the findings of Hypothesis III.1a.

It appears that, generally, a high score on both dimensions of the LBDQ typifies a good principal, but in this situation, emergent-oriented teachers may not require such high performance by their principals in the area of Initiating Structure because less stress is placed on getting the job done.

That no significant differences appear in the means on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ can be explained as follows. As suggested previously, teachers require warmth, acceptance, friendship and respect from their principals. Emergent teachers perceive their emergent principals as being considerably higher on Consideration behavior than on Initiating Structure behavior (Consideration mean -

45.18; Initiating Structure mean - 39.63). Such an observation is in harmony with the basic tenet of this thesis, that values do affect people's perceptions.

On the other hand, traditional teachers who value getting the job done rate their traditional-oriented principals high on Initiating Structure; but at the same time they see their principal as being considerate and so rate him equally high on Consideration (Initiating Structure mean -44.02; Consideration mean - 46.60).

Although for apparently different reasons, both traditional and emergent teachers rate their similarly-oriented principals the same on Consideration. Such an explanation suggests that if the principal shows a reasonable amount of consideration to his teachers this will produce favorable reactions on the part of the teachers, regardless of values.

The results of testing this hypothesis also seem to suggest that, at least in the area of Initiating Structure, and at least for emergent teachers, there is no "halo effect" ascribed to their principals because the emergent-oriented teachers rate their emergent principals much lower on Initiating Structure than the traditional-oriented teachers rate their traditional principals.

In the area of Initiating Structure, there is a significant difference in the way that traditional and emergent teachers perceive their similarly-oriented principals. The administrator must be aware of the implications of this finding. In addition to the similarities and differences in values affecting perceptions, it

is the *kind* of values held which also create differences in perception. That is, even though the teacher and principal have similar values, it is the kind of values, whether traditional or emergent, that will affect what the teacher perceives.

IV. HYPOTHESIS FOUR

Test of Hypothesis IV.1a

Hypothesis IV.1a stated that there would be no significant difference between the way that emergent teachers described emergent principals (Te and Pe) on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ and the way that they, the emergent teachers, described traditional principals (Te and Pt) on the same dimension.

The group describing the traditional principals consisted of 83 teachers and the group describing the emergent principals included 110 teachers. Again, the t-test was employed to determine the significance of difference between the means of the two groups. The results are illustrated in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII

COMPARISON OF MEAN INITIATING STRUCTURE SCORES
FOR Te AND Pe GROUPS AND FOR Te AND Pt GROUPS

Descriptions of Principals	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Traditional Principals	83	43.73	8.01	3.73***
Emergent Principals	110	39.63	7.16	

***significant beyond the .001 level of confidence

With 193 degrees of freedom the critical value of t is 1.960. The observed t -value of 3.73 is significant beyond the .001 level of confidence. Thus, it can be concluded, that there is indeed a significant difference between the way that emergent teachers perceive traditional principals and the way that emergent teachers perceive emergent principals on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ.

Test of Hypothesis IV.1b

Hypothesis IV.1b stated that there would be no significant difference between the way that emergent teachers described emergent principals (T_e and P_e) on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ and the way that they (emergent teachers) described traditional principals (T_e and P_t) on the same dimension.

Eighty-three emergent teachers described traditional principals and 110 emergent teachers described emergent principals. The t -test was calculated to determine the significance of difference between the means of the two groups. The findings are presented in Table XIV.

For 193 degrees of freedom, the critical t -value is 1.960. Because the observed t -value of 0.13 does not equal or exceed the critical value, the null hypothesis is accepted. In this study, there is no significant difference in the way that emergent teachers perceive traditional principals on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ and the way that the emergent teachers perceive emergent principals on the same dimension.

TABLE XIV
COMPARISON OF MEAN CONSIDERATION SCORES FOR
Te AND Pe GROUPS AND FOR Te AND Pt GROUPS

Descriptions of Principals	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Traditional Principals	83	45.36	8.90	0.13
Emergent Principals	110	45.18	9.52	

Test of Hypothesis IV.2a

This null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean scores of traditional and emergent principals on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ when those principals were described by traditional teachers.

The group describing the traditional principals included 101 teachers and the group describing the emergent principals consisted of 82 teachers. The t-test was used to determine the significance of difference between the means of the two groups. Because homogeneity of variance did not exist in this instance, the Welch test was employed to correct the t-test findings. The results are indicated in Table XV.

TABLE XV

COMPARISON OF MEAN INITIATING STRUCTURE SCORES
FOR Tt AND Pt GROUPS AND FOR Tt AND Pe GROUPS

Descriptions of Principals	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t^1
Traditional Principals	101	44.02	9.03	3.44***
Emergent Principals	82	39.87	7.30	

***significant beyond the .001 level of confidence

t^1 - corrected value of t as determined by Welch test

With 183 degrees of freedom, the t-value obtained, $t = 3.44$ (corrected value), exceeds the critical value of 1.960 required at the .05 level of confidence. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that there is a significant difference between the perceptions of traditional teachers when they describe traditional principals on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ and the perceptions of traditional teachers when they describe emergent principals on the same dimension.

Test of Hypothesis IV.2b

Hypothesis IV.2b stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean scores of traditional and emergent principals on the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ when those principals are described by traditional teachers.

One hundred and one traditional teachers described traditional principals and 82 traditional teachers described emergent principals. The t-test was calculated to determine the significance of difference between the means of the two groups. Table XVI presents the findings.

TABLE XVI
COMPARISON OF MEAN CONSIDERATION SCORES FOR
Tt AND Pt GROUPS AND FOR Tt AND Pe GROUPS

Descriptions of Principals	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Traditional Principals	101	46.60	8.67	1.59
Emergent Principals	82	44.45	9.55	

For 183 degrees of freedom, the critical t-value is 1.960. The observed t-value of 1.59 does not equal or exceed the critical value so the null hypothesis is accepted. The findings indicate that there is no significant difference between the way that traditional teachers describe traditional principals on the Consideration dimension of leader behavior and the way that traditional teachers describe emergent principals on the same dimension.

Discussion

The general trend established in the findings of previous hypotheses continues. Significant differences are found in the area

of Initiating Structure while no significant differences are found in Consideration. The discussion of Hypothesis III is equally pertinent for the present hypothesis.

The findings related to Hypothesis IV, particularly those of significance, suggest that the values of the perceived person affect the descriptions made by the person who is perceiving. In the area of Initiating Structure, this conclusion is upheld.

The implications for the principal are that he must (a) know his own values, (b) know the values of his teachers, and (c) know how his values affect the perceptions of those teachers. He must be aware that the values of both the perceiver and the perceived affect the perceptions of behavior, at least Initiating Structure behavior.

In addition, it appears that some difference does exist between the perceptions of traditional teachers in describing Consideration behavior of the traditional and emergent principals, although this difference does not quite reach the level of significance required in this study. This outcome suggests that there is a difference between the way that traditional teachers and emergent teachers perceive the two different groups of principals in the area of Consideration. The suggestion is evident when the *t*-values for Hypotheses IV.1b and IV.2b are considered -- 0.13 and 1.59 respectively. The emergent teachers seem to be less discerning in this instance. No conclusions should be drawn, however, because the findings themselves are not at the level of significance.

V. HYPOTHESIS FIVE

Test of Hypothesis V

Hypothesis V stated that there would be no significant difference between the mean LBDQ scores provided by teachers who were high on each dimension of the DVI and the mean LBDQ scores provided by teachers who were below the median on the same dimensions of the DVI.

One hundred and eighty-eight teachers composed each group. The t-test was calculated for each of the eight sections of the hypothesis to determine the significance of difference between the means of each two groups. The findings for the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ are presented in Table XVII and the findings for the Consideration dimension of the LBDQ are shown in Table XVIII.

With 376 degrees of freedom for each test, the critical t-value is 1.960. In each case, the observed value of t does not equal or exceed the critical value so the null hypothesis is accepted in all instances. Thus there is no significant difference between the mean LBDQ scores (Initiating Structure and Consideration) which were provided by groups of teachers above and below the median on the Work-Success, Individualism, Future-Time, and Puritan Morality dimensions of the DVI.

Discussion

Two points need to be made in the discussion of this hypothesis. The subtests of the DVI do not differentiate LBDQ mean scores. As is

TABLE XVII
COMPARISON OF MEAN INITIATING STRUCTURE SCORES
PROVIDED BY TEACHERS ABOVE AND BELOW THE
MEDIAN ON EACH DIMENSION OF THE DVI

DVI Subtest	Relation to Subtest Median	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Work Success	Above	188	42.14	8.63	0.89
	Below	188	41.39	7.70	
Future Time	Above	188	42.22	8.51	1.08
	Below	188	41.31	7.82	
Indepen- dence	Above	188	41.29	8.59	1.12
	Below	188	42.24	7.73	
Moral Commitment	Above	188	42.49	8.30	1.72
	Below	188	41.04	8.01	

TABLE XVIII

COMPARISON OF THE MEAN CONSIDERATION SCORES
 PROVIDED BY TEACHERS ABOVE AND BELOW THE
 MEDIAN ON EACH DIMENSION OF THE DVI

DVI Subtest	Relation to Subtest Median	N	Means	Standard Deviations	t
Work Success	Above	188	45.59	9.24	0.30
	Below	188	45.30	9.17	
Future Time	Above	188	45.71	9.40	0.57
	Below	188	45.18	9.00	
Indepen- dence	Above	188	45.37	9.02	0.15
	Below	188	45.52	9.38	
Moral Commitment	Above	188	45.56	9.77	0.25
	Below	188	45.32	8.60	

the case with many instruments incorporating subtests, the usefulness of the instrument is a result of the cumulative effect of the subtests, rather than the influence of any individual part. That the DVI is effective as a complete instrument in differentiating the means of the dependent variable has been demonstrated.

As can be observed in Tables XVII and XVIII, there is a greater tendency for comparisons on the Initiating Structure dimension to approach the significant level than for comparisons on the Consideration dimension. Such differences in the t-values seem to follow when the results of Hypotheses II, III and IV are considered. In each of these hypotheses, significant differences appeared on the Initiating Structure dimension but not on the Consideration dimension. The tendency is also evident here in Hypothesis V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which the values of the principal and teachers in a school are related to a description of the principal's leader behavior. In order to carry out this purpose, five general hypotheses, with sub-hypotheses, were developed and tested. The preceding chapter has outlined the procedures followed in analyzing the data related to these hypotheses and reported the results of these treatments. The present chapter summarizes the study procedures and the findings of the above analysis, briefly outlines the conclusions of the study, and suggests some implications for further study and for the principal.

I. SUMMARY

All regular elementary teachers in one school system who worked in a school with at least five teachers together with their principal were asked to participate in the study. Thirty-seven principals and 376 teachers constituted the final sample.

The information required for this study was obtained by means of the Differential Values Inventory and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. In addition, a General Questionnaire gathered demographic information about the respondents.

The data gathered by means of these questionnaires were used:

1. To obtain descriptions of the values of principals and teachers.
2. To examine the extent of difference in those values.
3. To obtain descriptions of the principal's leader behavior.
4. To assess the difference in perceptions of leader behavior in schools where teachers and principals shared similar values and schools where teachers and principals held differential values.
5. To determine the extent of difference between the description of leader behavior in schools where principal and teachers shared emergent values and descriptions in schools where principal and teachers shared traditional values.
6. To assess the extent of difference between the descriptions of traditional principals and descriptions of emergent principals provided by two groups of teachers who have similar values.
7. To determine the extent to which the individual value dimensions of the DVI relate to differences in the descriptions of leader behavior.

A values score was computed for each teacher and each principal by totalling the scores on the traditional dimensions of the DVI. The value orientation was then calculated for all respondents by classifying those respondents whose values scores were above the median values score as traditional, and those respondents whose values scores were below the median values score as emergent.

The t-test for significance of difference between means was used to determine whether or not significant differences existed in the comparisons mentioned above. The results indicated that parts of three major hypotheses were supported. No significant difference was found *between* the values of groups of principals and teachers. No significant difference was found between the descriptions of leader behavior when the individual value dimensions of the DVI were used as the criterion variables. Significant differences were found in all descriptions of the Initiating Structure behavior of principals.

II. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This part of Chapter V outlines the major conclusions drawn from this study and briefly discusses some possible implications. The findings of this study should not be generalized beyond the kind of sample employed in this study. This study does offer some directions for further research and some suggestions for the administrator.

Conclusion One

In this study the values of teachers as a group and of principals as a group were not significantly different.

Conclusion Two

The perceptions of principals' Initiating Structure behavior by teachers whose values were similar to the principals' were

significantly different from the perceptions by teachers whose values were different from those of their principals.

Conclusion Three

The perceptions of principals' Consideration behavior by teachers whose values were similar to their principals' values were not significantly different from the perceptions of teachers whose values were different from the values of their principals. Teachers, however, did perceive their principals' Consideration behavior differently. This fact suggests that perception of Consideration behavior may be a function of other variables than values. Therefore, such variables, mentioned earlier in this study, as needs, available means, and motivation, should be considered as possible factors influencing perception in this situation.

Conclusion Four

Teachers whose traditional values are similar to their principals' values perceive the principals' Initiating Structure behavior differently than do emergent teachers whose values are similar to the values of their principals. Therefore, it can be concluded that it is the kind of values held, as well as the differential values between the teacher and principal as indicated in Conclusion Three, that affect perception of Initiating Structure behavior.

The finding that there were no significant differences in the perception of Consideration behavior suggests, again, that other factors should be considered.

Conclusion Five

In the area of Initiating Structure behavior, the values of the principal affect the perceptions of the teachers.

Conclusion Six

No single value dimension of the Differential Values Inventory is responsible for the differences in the descriptions of leader behavior. Therefore, the general value orientation, such as traditional or emergent, which the individual holds is responsible for differences in leader behavior descriptions as tested by this study.

Conclusion Seven

On the basis of the previous conclusions -- that the values of the perceiver and the values of the perceived affect what is perceived -- it can be concluded that this study supports the transactional theory of perception on which this study was based in its tenet that perception can be accounted for only in terms of the *transaction* in which it takes place.

Implications for Research

The findings of this study suggest that values affect the perception of certain types of leader behavior. To further validate

this finding and to extend the knowledge of the influence of values on perception, the following studies should be undertaken:

1. A study replicating the procedures of this study using an urban and rural population.

2. An investigation of the perception of leader behavior as related to a different set of values than the set investigated in this study. Such a values instrument as the one developed by Allport, Vernon and Lindzey¹ in which the theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious values are assessed would provide a good means of studying different values.

3. A study of the expectations of teachers for the leader behavior of principals related to their value orientation. Further, value orientations should be related to the index obtained from comparing teachers' expectations for leader behavior and their perceptions of the actual leader behavior to determine the effect of values on the discrepancy between these expectations and actual perceptions. Another factor to consider in such an investigation would be the general satisfaction of the teachers and its relation to the foregoing variables. Such a study would indicate whether the existence of differential values in the interpersonal relationship does affect the satisfaction of the staff.

¹G. W. Allport, P. E. Vernon, and G. Lindzey, *Study of Values* (third edition; Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960).

In addition to investigating the effect of values on perception of leader behavior, other situational factors such as needs, available means to action, and motivation, should be studied in depth to determine their relationship to perception of leader behavior.

Such investigations would provide information about perception which would be invaluable to the administrator as he tries to account for and deal with all the variables which are present in the interpersonal relationship.

Implications for the Administrator

The findings of this study also provide suggestions for the administrator. The administrator should know his own values and the values of those whom he leads. The administrator should be aware that values affect the perception of his behavior in getting the job done. That is, teachers with values different from the principal will see his goal-oriented actions differently than those teachers whose values are similar to his own. Under such circumstances, extra attention should be devoted to clarifying the purposes behind the actions that the principal initiates, adjusting certain initiative actions so that the teachers are involved in the decisions leading up to such action, and being aware of dissatisfactions which appear to result from such differential values.

If the principal is able to see his own behavior as it is perceived by his teachers, he will be in a position either to change

his future behavior so that it is congruent with value-based expectations of individual teachers, or to modify the expectations and the resulting perceptions of those teachers.

The major implication of this study is that values are an important factor in the perception of goal-oriented leader behavior. Therefore, since values do affect perceptions, it is important for the administrator to be accurate in his assessment of the values of others and of his own values so that his actions may be soundly based. However, since values alone do not determine what is perceived, other situational factors also must be considered.

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Dear Sir,

I am pleased to inform you that the results of the examination have been declared. The results are as follows: (a) First Prize: Mr. A. B. C. (b) Second Prize: Mr. D. E. F. (c) Third Prize: Mr. G. H. I. (d) Fourth Prize: Mr. J. K. L. (e) Fifth Prize: Mr. M. N. O. (f) Sixth Prize: Mr. P. Q. R. (g) Seventh Prize: Mr. S. T. U. (h) Eighth Prize: Mr. V. W. X. (i) Ninth Prize: Mr. Y. Z. A. (j) Tenth Prize: Mr. B. C. D. (k) Eleventh Prize: Mr. E. F. G. (l) Twelfth Prize: Mr. H. I. J. (m) Thirteenth Prize: Mr. K. L. M. (n) Fourteenth Prize: Mr. N. O. P. (o) Fifteenth Prize: Mr. Q. R. S. (p) Sixteenth Prize: Mr. T. U. V. (q) Seventeenth Prize: Mr. W. X. Y. (r) Eighteenth Prize: Mr. Z. A. B. (s) Nineteenth Prize: Mr. C. D. E. (t) Twentieth Prize: Mr. F. G. H. (u) Twenty-first Prize: Mr. I. J. K. (v) Twenty-second Prize: Mr. L. M. N. (w) Twenty-third Prize: Mr. O. P. Q. (x) Twenty-fourth Prize: Mr. R. S. T. (y) Twenty-fifth Prize: Mr. U. V. W. (z) Twenty-sixth Prize: Mr. X. Y. Z. (aa) Twenty-seventh Prize: Mr. A. B. C. (ab) Twenty-eighth Prize: Mr. D. E. F. (ac) Twenty-ninth Prize: Mr. G. H. I. (ad) Thirtieth Prize: Mr. J. K. L. (ae) Thirty-first Prize: Mr. M. N. O. (af) Thirty-second Prize: Mr. P. Q. R. (ag) Thirty-third Prize: Mr. S. T. U. (ah) Thirty-fourth Prize: Mr. V. W. X. (ai) Thirty-fifth Prize: Mr. Y. Z. A. (aj) Thirty-sixth Prize: Mr. B. C. D. (ak) Thirty-seventh Prize: Mr. E. F. G. (al) Thirty-eighth Prize: Mr. H. I. J. (am) Thirty-ninth Prize: Mr. K. L. M. (an) Fortieth Prize: Mr. N. O. P. (ao) Forty-first Prize: Mr. Q. R. S. (ap) Forty-second Prize: Mr. T. U. V. (aq) Forty-third Prize: Mr. W. X. Y. (ar) Forty-fourth Prize: Mr. Z. A. B. (as) Forty-fifth Prize: Mr. C. D. E. (at) Forty-sixth Prize: Mr. F. G. H. (au) Forty-seventh Prize: Mr. I. J. K. (av) Forty-eighth Prize: Mr. L. M. N. (aw) Forty-ninth Prize: Mr. O. P. Q. (ax) Fiftieth Prize: Mr. R. S. T. (ay) Fifty-first Prize: Mr. U. V. W. (az) Fifty-second Prize: Mr. X. Y. Z. (ba) Fifty-third Prize: Mr. A. B. C. (bb) Fifty-fourth Prize: Mr. D. E. F. (bc) Fifty-fifth Prize: Mr. G. H. I. (bd) Fifty-sixth Prize: Mr. J. K. L. (be) Fifty-seventh Prize: Mr. M. N. O. (bf) Fifty-eighth Prize: Mr. P. Q. R. (bg) Fifty-ninth Prize: Mr. S. T. U. (bh) Sixtieth Prize: Mr. V. W. X. (bi) Sixty-first Prize: Mr. Y. Z. A. (bj) Sixty-second Prize: Mr. B. C. D. (bk) Sixty-third Prize: Mr. E. F. G. (bl) Sixty-fourth Prize: Mr. H. I. J. (bm) Sixty-fifth Prize: Mr. K. L. M. (bn) Sixty-sixth Prize: Mr. N. O. P. (bo) Sixty-seventh Prize: Mr. Q. R. S. (bp) Sixty-eighth Prize: Mr. T. U. V. (bq) Sixty-ninth Prize: Mr. W. X. Y. (br) Seventieth Prize: Mr. Z. A. B. (bs) Seventy-first Prize: Mr. C. D. E. (bt) Seventy-second Prize: Mr. F. G. H. (bu) Seventy-third Prize: Mr. I. J. K. (bv) Seventy-fourth Prize: Mr. L. M. N. (bw) Seventy-fifth Prize: Mr. O. P. Q. (bx) Seventy-sixth Prize: Mr. R. S. T. (by) Seventy-seventh Prize: Mr. U. V. W. (bz) Seventy-eighth Prize: Mr. X. Y. Z. (ca) Seventy-ninth Prize: Mr. A. B. C. (cb) Eightieth Prize: Mr. D. E. F. (cc) Eighty-first Prize: Mr. G. H. I. (cd) Eighty-second Prize: Mr. J. K. L. (ce) Eighty-third Prize: Mr. M. N. O. (cf) Eighty-fourth Prize: Mr. P. Q. R. (cg) Eighty-fifth Prize: Mr. S. T. U. (ch) Eighty-sixth Prize: Mr. V. W. X. (ci) Eighty-seventh Prize: Mr. Y. Z. A. (cj) Eighty-eighth Prize: Mr. B. C. D. (ck) Eighty-ninth Prize: Mr. E. F. G. (cl) Ninetieth Prize: Mr. H. I. J. (cm) Ninety-first Prize: Mr. K. L. M. (cn) Ninety-second Prize: Mr. N. O. P. (co) Ninety-third Prize: Mr. Q. R. S. (cp) Ninety-fourth Prize: Mr. T. U. V. (cq) Ninety-fifth Prize: Mr. W. X. Y. (cr) Ninety-sixth Prize: Mr. Z. A. B. (cs) Ninety-seventh Prize: Mr. C. D. E. (ct) Ninety-eighth Prize: Mr. F. G. H. (cu) Ninety-ninth Prize: Mr. I. J. K. (cv) One Hundredth Prize: Mr. L. M. N. (cw)

I am, Sir, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
J. K. L.

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

I am, Sir, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
J. K. L.

I am, Sir, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
J. K. L.

I am, Sir, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
J. K. L.

I am, Sir, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
J. K. L.

Yours faithfully,
J. K. L.

Yours faithfully,
J. K. L.

5 - 10725 - 85th Avenue,
Edmonton, Alberta,
May 24, 1966.

Dear

At present I am completing my Master's degree in Educational Administration at the University of Alberta, Edmonton. In partial fulfillment for the requirements of this course I am preparing to study the values of teachers and principals and their effect on leader behavior. In this regard, I solicit the cooperation of you and your staff.

I have received permission from your Superintendent to conduct this study in the Regina schools. You may have been notified about my study already.

The part of the study which will involve you and your staff consists of the completion of three questionnaires. Two questionnaires -- one requiring general information and one dealing with values -- are to be answered by the principal and require approximately 20 minutes to complete. The above two questionnaires plus one which describes the principal's leader behavior are to be answered by the regular teachers on staff and require approximately 30 minutes to complete. Regular teachers are ones who have been associated with you in your school at least 6 months (exclude relieving teachers).

As you will see when the questionnaires are delivered, all information will be confidential and schools and individuals will be anonymous as only groups are discussed in the study. School time need not be infringed upon in answering questionnaires.

I am enclosing a stamped, self-addressed reply card and would appreciate it if you would supply the pertinent information and drop the card in the next mail. Would you please appoint a teacher who will be responsible for collecting the questionnaires for the school and enter his (her) name on the card.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation and I look forward to hearing from you very soon and to meeting with you in your school the first few days in June.

Very sincerely,

Mervin F. Thornton

APPENDIX B

GENERAL TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

GENERAL TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

1. On the staff are the following number of teachers excluding the principal and relieving teacher:

5 or less	6-8	9-11	12-14	15-17	18 or more
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

2. My total number of years of teaching experience including the present year is:

1	2-4	5-8	9-12	13-16	17 or more
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

3. My age at my last birthday was:

20 or less	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61 or over
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

4. The total number of years that I have taught on the same staff as my present principal, including the years when he may have held the positions of teacher, vice-principal, or assistant principal including the present year is:

1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

5. My sex is:

Male	Female
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

6. At present I am teaching grade:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

7. The number of years training which I have had is:

1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

8. My marital status is:

Single	Married	Widowed or Divorced
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

APPENDIX C

GENERAL PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX D

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies

108

Name of Leader Being Described.....

Name of Group Which He Leads.....

Your Name.....

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term, "*group*," as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

The term "*members*," refers to all the people in the unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

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College of Commerce and Administration
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

DIRECTIONS:

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether he always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts as described by the item.
- d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A—Always

B—Often

C—Occasionally

D—Seldom

E—Never

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. He does personal favors for group members. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 2. He makes his attitudes clear to the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 3. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 4. He tries out his new ideas with the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 5. He acts as the real leader of the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 6. He is easy to understand. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. He rules with an iron hand. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. He finds time to listen to group members. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. He criticizes poor work. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. He gives advance notice of changes. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 11. He speaks in a manner not to be questioned. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 12. He keeps to himself. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 13. He looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 14. He assigns group members to particular tasks. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 15. He is the spokesman of the group. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 16. He schedules the work to be done. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 17. He maintains definite standards of performance. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 18. He refuses to explain his actions. | A | B | C | D | E |

19. He keeps the group informed.	A	B	C	D	E
20. He acts without consulting the group.	A	B	C	D	E
21. He backs up the members in their actions.	A	B	C	D	E
22. He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.	A	B	C	D	E
23. He treats all group members as his equals.	A	B	C	D	E
24. He encourages the use of uniform procedures.	A	B	C	D	E
25. He gets what he asks for from his superiors.	A	B	C	D	E
26. He is willing to make changes.	A	B	C	D	E
27. He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by group members.	A	B	C	D	E
28. He is friendly and approachable.	A	B	C	D	E
29. He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.	A	B	C	D	E
30. He fails to take necessary action.	A	B	C	D	E
31. He makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.	A	B	C	D	E
32. He lets group members know what is expected of them.	A	B	C	D	E
33. He speaks as the representative of the group.	A	B	C	D	E
34. He puts suggestions made by the group into operation.	A	B	C	D	E
35. He sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.	A	B	C	D	E
36. He lets other people take away his leadership in the group.	A	B	C	D	E
37. He gets his superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.	A	B	C	D	E
38. He gets group approval in important matters before going ahead.	A	B	C	D	E
39. He sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated.	A	B	C	D	E
40. He keeps the group working together as a team.	A	B	C	D	E

APPENDIX E

DIFFERENTIAL VALUES INVENTORY

QUESTIONNAIRE B

Instructions

Your name should NOT be placed on this questionnaire.

This questionnaire consists of a number of statements about things which you may think you ought or ought not to do and feel. These statements are arranged in pairs as in the examples below:

- | | |
|--|--------|
| 1. A ... be reliable | 1. A B |
| B ... be friendly | |
| 2. A ... work on a project with others | 2. A B |
| B ... work on a project alone | |

To help you make the required choice, when reading the item to yourself, precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to ...". That is, in the examples given, you choose the item which is most desirable for you. If you feel that you ought to work on a project with others more strongly than you feel that you ought to work on a project alone, you should draw a circle around the letter A following the pair of items, thus:

- | | |
|--|----------|
| 2. A ... work on a project with others | 2. (A) B |
| B ... work on a project alone | |

If you feel more strongly about B than A, circle B.

- | | |
|--|----------|
| 2. A ... work on a project with others | 2. A (B) |
| B ... work on a project alone | |

THIS IS NOT A TEST. You are merely asked to indicate your opinions and feelings regarding a variety of subjects. Work rapidly. First impulses are important. Please answer ALL questions even though you may have to choose between two that are equally acceptable.

Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to ..."

1. A ... work harder than most of those with a similar job. 1. A B
B ... work at least as hard as most of those with a similar job.
2. A ... do many things with other people. 2. A B
B ... do things which are out-of-the-ordinary.
3. A ... have my own firm ideas about politics and religion. 3. A B
B ... allow the opinions of my friends and associates to influence my thinking on these matters.
4. A ... enjoy myself often by doing things with others. 4. A B
B ... seek satisfaction by doing many things on my own.
5. A ... attain a higher position than my father or mother attained. 5. A B
B ... enjoy more of the good things of life than my father and mother enjoyed.
6. A ... feel that since the future is uncertain I should take advantage of my present opportunities. 6. A B
B ... feel that the future holds more opportunities for me than the present.
7. A ... feel that happiness is the most important thing in life to me. 7. A B
B ... feel that enduring suffering and pain is important for me in the long run.
8. A ... obtain advice from others in making decisions. 8. A B
B ... be independent of others in making decisions.
9. A ... feel it is my duty to save as much money as I can. 9. A B
B ... feel that saving is good but not to the extent that I must deprive myself of all present enjoyment.
10. A ... put ten dollars in the bank. 10. A B
B ... spend five of the ten dollars enjoying myself with my friends.
11. A ... spend enough on clothes to dress as well as my friends and associates. 11. A B
B ... spend less on clothes in order to save for future needs.

12. A ... put in long hours of work without distraction. 12. A B
 B ... feel that I can't work long hours without
 distraction but I'll get the job done anyway.
13. A ... feel that it is most important to live for 13. A B
 the future.
 B ... feel that today is important and I should
 live each day to the fullest.
14. A ... feel that what is right for me may not be 14. A B
 right for others.
 B ... feel that I should be firm in my beliefs
 about what is right or wrong.
15. A ... work hard to do most things better than others. 15. A B
 B ... work hard at some things and leave others to
 those who are more qualified than I.
16. A ... feel that everybody misbehaves once in a 16. A B
 while but the important thing is not to
 make the same mistake over again.
 B ... feel that the most important thing in life
 is to strive for peace with God.
17. A ... feel that work should come before pleasure. 17. A B
 B ... feel that pleasure is necessary to develop
 the well-rounded individual.
18. A ... consider what others think when deciding 18. A B
 about right and wrong.
 B ... feel that my own convictions about right
 and wrong are all that really matter.
19. A ... defend my ideas about right and wrong. 19. A B
 B ... be willing to be convinced on matters of
 right and wrong because these terms have
 different meanings for different people.
20. A ... make as many social contacts as possible. 20. A B
 B ... be willing to sacrifice myself for a
 better world.
21. A ... get all my work done by my own efforts. 21. A B
 B ... get my work done with the help of others
 if I am allowed to.
22. A ... wear clothes similar to those of my friends. 22. A B
 B ... dress modestly even though this makes me
 different than my friends.
23. A ... work hard to earn enough money to enjoy some 23. A B
 of the luxuries of life.
 B ... work hard at doing something original regard-
 less of pay.

24. A ... get a job which will allow me to enjoy some of the luxuries of life. 24. A B
 B ... get a job which will make me a success in life.
25. A ... be able to solve difficult problems and puzzles. 25. A B
 B ... feel that difficult problems and puzzles are good for some people but are not for everybody.
26. A ... feel that style is more important than quality in clothes. 26. A B
 B ... feel that quality is more important than style in clothes.
27. A ... say what I think is right about things. 27. A B
 B ... be careful not to say things that will offend others.
28. A ... feel comfortable doing as well as most people with a similar job. 28. A B
 B ... feel comfortable doing better than most others with a similar job.
29. A ... have strong personal feelings about correct behavior. 29. A B
 B ... feel that the group has the right to decide what kind of behavior it will approve.
30. A ... feel that discipline in the family today is not as strict as it should be. 30. A B
 B ... feel that change from strict discipline in today's family is a good one.
31. A ... feel that one of the primary things in life is to gain knowledge useful to me in the future. 31. A B
 B ... feel that one of the primary things in life is to learn to get along with people.
32. A ... do things without regard to what others may think. 32. A B
 B ... do things which allow me to have fun and be happy.
33. A ... register for an adult education course which is very interesting to me, whether or not it will do me some good later on. 33. A B
 B ... register for an adult education course which is uninteresting to me but which will do me some good later on.
34. A ... attend a First of July celebration to enjoy myself being with people. 34. A B
 B ... attend a First of July celebration because it is my duty to be loyal to my country.

35. A ... feel it is right to spend less for clothes in order to save for the future. 35. A B
 B ... feel that whether one wants to spend more for clothes and save less or vice versa is a matter of opinion.
36. A ... try to do original and creative things. 36. A B
 B ... share my ideas and work cooperatively with others.
37. A ... use expressions that are common among my friends and associates. 37. A B
 B ... use only correct expressions when I speak.
38. A ... feel that it is right to save for the future. 38. A B
 B ... feel that whether or not it is right to save for the future is up to the individual.
39. A ... choose a job with plenty of opportunities for advancement even though the pay isn't as high as I would like it to be. 39. A B
 B ... choose a job in which I can work with many interesting people.
40. A ... mix in a little pleasure with my work so that I don't get bored. 40. A B
 B ... keep at a job until it is finished.
41. A ... get as much pleasure as I can out of life now. 41. A B
 B ... stand by my convictions.
42. A ... feel that everyone should be sociable even if it means occasional misbehaviour. 42. A B
 B ... feel guilty when I misbehave and expect to be punished.
43. A ... feel that children should obey decisions of their parents. 43. A B
 B ... feel that children should be able to do many of the things their friends do.
44. A ... be very ambitious. 44. A B
 B ... be very sociable.
45. A ... choose a job which will permit me to have as many luxuries as most of my friends. 45. A B
 B ... choose a job which promises advancement even though the pay is lower than that of my friends.
46. A ... get the kind of job which will bring me in contact with many interesting people. 46. A B
 B ... get the kind of job which will make me a success in life.

47. A ... feel that whether or not it is right to plan and save for the future is a matter of opinion. 47. A B
 B ... feel that it is right to plan and save for the future.
48. A ... be willing to sacrifice myself for the sake of a better job. 48. A B
 B ... feel it is important to behave like most other people do.
49. A ... deny myself enjoyment for the present for better things in the future. 49. A B
 B ... have fun attending parties and being with people.
50. A ... be satisfied to do as well in life as my father did. 50. A B
 B ... attain a higher position in life than my father did.
51. A ... feel that it will be good for me later if I endure some unpleasant things now. 51. A B
 B ... feel that whether or not I should be willing to endure unpleasant things now because it will be good for me later is a matter of opinion.
52. A ... be able to have most of the things my friends have. 52. A B
 B ... be able to have enough money to lay away for future needs.
53. A ... feel that happiness is the most important thing in life. 53. A B
 B ... feel that being respected is the most important thing in life.
54. A ... feel that more "old-fashioned whippings" are needed today. 54. A B
 B ... feel that it is up to the individual parents to decide whether or not children should be whipped.
55. A ... exert every effort to be more successful this year than I was last year. 55. A B
 B ... be content with a reasonable amount of success and live longer.
56. A ... try very hard to overcome my emotions. 56. A B
 B ... get as much pleasure as I can out of life now.

57. A ... feel it is very important to be more successful this year than I was last year. 57. A B
 B ... feel it is more important to get along well with others.
58. A ... feel that what is sinful for one person may be acceptable for another. 58. A B
 B ... feel that I should avoid even the appearance of sin.
59. A ... spend as much time as I can in working independently. 59. A B
 B ... spend as much time as I can in having fun.
60. A ... deny myself enjoyment for the present for better things in the future. 60. A B
 B ... be able to have as much enjoyment as my friends have.
61. A ... feel that it is right to be very ambitious. 61. A B
 B ... feel that it may or may not be right to be very ambitious depending on the individual.
62. A ... choose to work with people I like in a job I don't like. 62. A B
 B ... choose to work with people I don't like in a job which I like.
63. A ... work as hard as I can in order to be successful. 63. A B
 B ... work as hard as I can in order to enjoy some of the luxuries of life.
64. A ... strive to be an expert at something. 64. A B
 B ... do many things well but not be an expert in anything.

PLEASE MAKE SURE YOU ANSWERED ALL QUESTIONS.

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